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Microtraining — Teaching Pre-service Teachers More Effective Communication Skills

by

© Edward Matthew Franzoni

A Thesis

Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research

in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

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Edmonton, Alberta

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The University of Alberta

Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Microtraining: Teaching Pre-service Teachers More Effective Communication Skills", submitted by Edward Matthew Franzoni in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Counselling and School Psychology.

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Abstract

The purpose of the present study was to develop a microcounseling workshop and to evaluate its effectiveness for training pre-service teachers in the use of basic communication skills. This 12-hour workshop was a modification of the Ivey microtraining paradigm. A total of 54 students in an educational psychology course were assigned to one of three workshop groups. Pre-testing and posttesting consisted of video-taping subjects acting as teachers conducting discussion groups while peers roleplayed elementary students. Videotapes of the group sessions were rated on the following variables which had been taught in the workshop: eye contact, closed questions, posture, gesticulation and non-verbal minimal encouragers, verbal following and minimal verbal encouragers, open-ended questions, paraphrasing and teacher talk time. Results showed that the three groups in the study used 7 of the 8 skills presented more frequently following treatment, however, subjects demonstrated fewer posture changes following treatment. The combined pre-test/posttest groups significantly increased use in 6 of the 8 variables while the pre-test/delayed posttest group increased significantly in the use of eye contact, paraphrasing and teacher talk time. Handbooks for trainers and trainees were developed and revised; they are designed for use in this workshop and similar workshops for the training of teachers in the use of more effective classroom communication skills.

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Chapter I

Introduction

Traditional teacher education has been primarily oriented towards cognition with limited emphasis on affect, however, scholars have existed throughout the history of education who believed that a feeling as well as a thinking child comes to school and that this child must be dealt with as a whole person (Barden & Bennett, 1974; Brown, 1969, 1975; Dewey in A.G. Wirth (Ed.), 1966; Flanders, 1970; Holt, 1964, 1972; Mead, 1934; Rogers, 1969; Sullivan, 1953; Taba, 1942; Weinstein & Fantini, 1970). Attempts to incorporate the affective component into the educational system necessitated changes in the role of many teachers and their interactions with students. In the last 10 years, classroom communication systems were shifting from one-way, that is teacher control and dissemination of academic material, to a two-way system in which input flows between student and teacher (Gordon, 1974).

Programs in basic interpersonal skills such as communication training for teachers seem an important area to investigate in order to more adequately deal with both the affective and academic components of the learning process. Teacher training in communication skills can have a positive effect on students in the classroom. For instance, Gordon (1974) reported that teacher training in basic communication skills improved classroom management. He also reported improvement in student self-image and interest in achievement through more effective classroom communications (1974). Formal affective education programs

(Dinkmeyer, 1973; Palomares & Ball, 1974) can be more successfully implemented in the classroom when teachers have communication training. Ginott (1965) hypothesized students feel better understood when the teacher demonstrates well developed communication skills.

Higher level teacher communication skills in the classroom allow students to become more self-directed and obtain a greater positive self-regard as well as becoming more interested in school and attaining more academic success (Coleman, Campbell, Hobson, McPortland, Mood, Weinfeld & York, 1966; Rogers, 1959). Coleman, et al. (1966) also found that positive feelings and attitudes of students facilitate achievement more than factors such as class size, teacher salaries and type of school facilities, thus stressing the need for emphasis on communication training.

Teacher education has recognized the need for communications as an important part of training in the preparation of classroom teachers. Taba (1942), however, reported that the training received in teacher training programs is primarily aimed at providing the teacher with skills which allow successful delivery of information. Taba's position was supported in an extensive study by Chadbourne (1975) which examined over 5,000 classroom statements of student-teacher interactions taken from modeling films of expert teachers. It was found that teacher-student communications generally dealt with subject material on a content level. Chadbourne (1975) found that 94% of teacher statements focused on topic, 5% focused on students and 1% on the class as a whole. Similarly, student focus was 94% on topic, 4% on themselves and 1% on others. During the entire

research period, only one reflection of feeling statement was offered by expert teachers and the students expressed feeling only 2.5% of the time. Adams and Biddle (1967) demonstrated that less than one-half of 1% of classroom time was allotted to dealing with feelings. Similar percentages were recorded by Flanders and Amidon (1967) and French and Galloway (1970). Teacher talk time was a significant variable in Chadbourne's study; the teacher is truly 'in charge' talking 73.2% of the time. This percentage agreed with Flanders (1970) who found that in the field, teacher talk time is about 68%. The research seems to demonstrate that as the teacher talks more, student self-expression is inhibited. The students assume minimal verbal responsibility in the classroom when the teacher talks the majority of the time.

Further studies indicate that classroom teachers have difficulty expressing feelings. For example, Gorman (1974) offered the following hypothesis concerning lack of affectivity in the classroom: "Teachers, like other adults, have learned to suppress (communication of feelings) and to indirectly teach suppression to their students because they have also come to accept such bottling up of feelings as normal" (p. 68). This indirect teaching of suppression of feeling might be an example of what Goldhammer (1969) defines as "hidden curriculum" or incidental learning. Incidental learning is not intended, as it occur without teachers' awareness, but is a direct result of teachers' behavior.

Research into student-teacher interactions in the classroom provides insight into teacher behavior. Methodology, or how to teach more

effective classroom communications becomes a problem. Gordon (1974) felt the primary reason for problems in the classroom is the dysfunctional communication patterns between the teacher and the class. Gordon's Teacher Effectiveness Training (T.E.T.) places heavy emphasis on effective communication skills as a prerequisite for acquisition of specific classroom operations such as conflict-resolution. The need for more effective communications in the classroom has been stressed by others (Glasser, 1969; Rogers, 1959).

A number of programs have been developed to help teachers communicate more effectively (Allen & Ryan, 1969; Flanders & Amidon, 1967; Ginott, 1965; Glasser, 1961). Each of the programs has met with varying degrees of success and acceptance. One approach, microteaching seems to have promise; it is widely used, reported to be effective in training teachers (Allen & Ryan, 1969) and has led to the development of a system to train counsellors called microcounseling (Ivey, 1971): Allen and Ryan (1969) discuss microcounseling (Ivey, Normington, Miller, Morrill & Haase, 1968) as an innovative program in which counsellor trainees systematically practice component skills of counselling. In these early studies (Ivey, et al., 1968), microcounseling proved to be successful in teaching beginning counsellors attending behaviors, reflection of feeling and summarization of feelings.

While the microcounseling paradigm utilizes the theoretical constructs and concepts of microteaching, it varies from microteaching in format and approach. In microcounseling, the trainee interacts with a

client rather than a group of students. Microcounseling is geared towards training beginning counsellors rather than providing teachers with skills for presenting academic material as in microteaching. While initially successful in counsellor training, microcounseling has been used to teach specific skills to a variety of individuals. Focus of microcounseling tends to be much more specific on one particular skill versus a short segment of microteaching. For example, the microcounseling paradigm has been successful in the instruction of junior high students in attending behavior (Aldrige, 1971) with para-professionals (Authier & Guftafson, 1975; Haase & DeMattia, 1970) and parents (Gluckstern, 1973) in teaching human relations skills (Rollin, 1970) and with beginning counsellors (Welch, 1976).

Allen, the developer of microteaching, in referring to microcounseling's contribution to the field of human relations, states Ivey uses microcounseling "to teach individuals the developmental skill of being people" (Allen, in Ivey, 1971, p. xi).

Ivey reports that recent evidence indicates that microcounseling can be effective in group programs. Studies indicate a need for training teachers in helping skills. "It would seem that the use of some microcounseling skills might assist teachers in listening more effectively to children, particularly if education is viewed as a two-way process" (Ivey, 1971, p. 91). The available research to date indicates that microcounseling methods are as effective or more effective in teaching helping skills than other training techniques.

Seemingly, the approaches used in microcounseling could be of

benefit to teacher education in helping student teachers or in-service teachers to learn appropriate communication skills. Allen writes in the introduction to Ivey's Microcounseling: Innovations in Interviewing Techniques:

> He (Ivey) has developed another role for the teacher which has not been fully stressed in microteaching to date - the role of the teacher as listener, as facilitator to the growth of students. There is a need for teachers to learn listening skills, such as attending and reflection of feeling, if they are to understand pupils and help them become more fully human (Ivey, 1971, p. xii).

Although microcounseling has been extensively used in teaching communication skills to a number of different groups, it has yet to be adapted and evaluated in the teaching of teachers in an experimental study (Ivey & Gluckstern, 1976).

Purpose of the Study

This study is based upon review of the current literature which stresses the importance of basic communications in the classroom. The purpose of this study will be to develop a microcounseling workshop and to evaluate it's effectiveness in training pre-service teachers in the use of basic communication skills.

The Ivey paradigm (1971) will be modified to develop an instructional package to teach teachers communication skills. This program will be geared towards basic communication training, more specifically

listening skills, modified for the classroom and consisting of three major skill clusters; attending, focus and paraphrasing. Attending and focus will be made up of specific components and each component skill in these clusters will be acquired as a separate entity and then later combined as a composite skill.

Attending will consist of acquisition of good eye contact, appropriate gesticulation and posture and accurate verbal following. Focus will consist of the following components: open and closed questions, verbal and non-verbal minimal encouragers and reduction of teacher talk time. Attending, focus and paraphrasing incorporate non-verbal and verbal components and are seen by the author as forming the necessary basis from which more complex and sophisticated communication skills may be practiced and demonstrated.

Therefore, the major emphasis of this study involves the development of a microcounseling workshop. The first step in development was the pilot project which tested the feasibility of the modified format for use with pre-service teachers. The pilot consisted of a 12-hour communication workshop which utilized the microcounseling approach. This workshop was included as a part of "Introduction to Guidance", an Educational Psychology course at the University of Alberta. The sample consisted of 54 students, 35 females and 19 males. The pilot focused on program, administration, technical requirements (VTR) and acceptance.

On the basis of the successful results of the pilot project, a manual was developed for use in this study. This manual appears as

Appendix A. It is expected that further trainee manual revisions as well as a trainers handbook will be developed. Curriculum, handout materials, lectures, lecture videotapes, modeling videotapes and videotape recording procedures were organized for use in this study. For more elaborate discussion of the modified microcounseling workshop, see Chapter III.

Overview

In Chapter I, the topic of the study was introduced by setting out it's needs and purpose. In Chapter II a brief historical review of the literature relevant to the study with an emphasis on research in microcounseling will be presented. The development and implementation of the listening skills workshop and the actual procedures employed in the experiment will be described in detail in Chapter III. The hypotheses will also appear there. The analysis of data and results of the study will be reported in Chapter IV. In Chapter V the results will be summarized, the limitations of the present study will be examined and the chapter will conclude with suggestions for further study.

Chapter II

The importance of communication in the classroom has long been recognized as one of the critical ingredients in the learning process. Traditionally, the communication between teacher and student has been viewed as the vehicle for imparting knowledge (Taba & Elkins, 1966), however, others (Brown, 1969; Cooley, 1956; Dewey, 1938; Flanders & Amidon, 1967; Ginott, 1965; Gordon, 1974; Holt, 1964, 1972; Mead, 1934; Rogers, 1959; Weinstein & Fantini, 1970) considered the process from a more global perspective.

Historical View of Communications

As early as 1895, John Dewey recognized the importance of classroom communications as the medium through which the school might co-ordinate the psychological and social growth of the child (Dewey in A.G. Wirth (Ed.), 1966). Dewey viewed the child as socially constituted since all modes of communications were considered to be expressions of social communications rather than thought. Cognitive materials were important to the child only if they were relevant and useful in achieving higher levels of social competence or acceptance. Dewey (1966) said the child must be studied individually and be allowed the freedom to use all his powers, so eventually he will be capable of expressing himself in a way which facilitates interaction with society. The goal of education was seen by Dewey as the co-ordination of the child's personal growth and his growth towards being an accepted contributor in a society (Dewey in A.G. Wirth, 1966).

During this early period, Dewey was attempting to legitimize education as a university discipline, rather than a technical occupation. He was influenced and supported by the social psychologists, Mead and Cooley. Cooley's (1956) 'looking glass' concept stated we develop ideas of ourselves from our perceptions of others' reactions to us. The implication for the classroom is that the most significant other, besides the parents, is the teacher. Therefore, the important role of providing feedback makes the teacher a profound influence on the child's developing self-concept. The students' perceptions of teacher feelings towards her students exert a great influence on the students' self-image. This mirroring concept of relative perceptions is viewed by others as a most important part of the development of healthy interpersonal relationships (Sullivan, 1953; Laing, Phillipson & Lee, 1966; Montague, 1971). The classroom teacher must be sensitive to the child's interpretation of his behavior and be able to act on both his verbal and non-verbal cues.

Further support for Dewey's social education comes from Mead (1934) who viewed schools as existing primarily for social functioning. There is no existence of self without others and normal development is impeded if social interactions are not favorable. Sullivan (1953) went a step further and asserted that many forms of deviant behavior were the consequence of disordered interpersonal relationships.

Sullivan (1953), a social psychiatrist, viewed development of personality as a function of relations between people. Communication was the medium through which these relationships are carried out.

Self-identity and personifications of others takes place through communications (verbal and non-verbal) and various patterns of interpersonal interactions were aimed at personal satisfaction and security. Sullivan emphasized the importance of the human organisms' experience with the environment of the physical and social world. The point of interaction was termed the "nexus", the basis of experience. It is the "nexus" of interactional process in human communication which influenced other communication theorists (Laing, et al. 1966; Rogers, 1957). Sullivan defined personality as "the relatively enduring pattern of recurrent interpersonal situations which characterize human life" (1953, p. 111). The classroom teacher, as a most significant other, who has more contact with the child than anyone except the parent, is a continually involved counterpart in the "nexus".

Laing, et al. (1966) agreed with Sullivan stating that a person cannot be abstracted from their interpersonal interactions. Crucial to interpersonal relationships were how each person perceived and interpreted the behaviors of others. People may agree on the actual behaviors yet differ dramatically in the interpretations.

An individual's action toward another person is based upon the other person's experience of him and the other's experience of himself as well as the actual behavior. Interactions are also influenced by the perceiver's self-identity, one's view of oneself, and his meta identity, how one perceives another's view of him.

The concept of meta perceptions was the basis for development

of the Interpersonal Perception Method (I.P.M.) (Laing, et al., 1966). The IPM was designed to measure and understand how an individual's assumption about others view of him affected a dyadic relationship. During the 1960's, researchers applied theoretical principles of interpersonal interaction to the development of human relations training programs (Carkuff, 1971; Combs, 1969; Ivey, 1971; Kagan, 1975; Rogers, 1957).

Human Relations Training

The study of human behavior has been traditionally carried out from an external point of view. Perceptual psychology views behavior as a "function of the perceptual field of the behaver at the instant of action" (Combs in Avila, Combs & Purkey, 1971, p. 289).

The studies in perception conducted at the University of Florida (Combs, 1969) revealed that people who are effective helpers have a number of common kinds of perceptions. Effective helpers were generally people oriented; they viewed the people they worked with in "essentially positive ways as dependable, friendly and worthy people" (Avila, et al., 1971, p. 293). Effective helpers see themselves as together with the rest of the world, sharing a common fate while having a positive self-image. The task is viewed by the effective helper as a freeing rather than a controlling experience.

It is Combs' contention that in the training of teachers or counsellors, it is not so much the adoption of the "right method, but a question of the helper discovering the right method for him" (Avila, et al., 1971,

p. 295). The authenticity of the methods used distinguish between the effective and non-effective helper. Only authentic or personally natural skills will become part of an individual's behavior repertoire. The implications for training seem to be that skill acquisition and use is dependent upon the trainee's internal frame of reference (Combs, 1969).

Empathy, genuineness and unconditional positive regard were considered by Rogers (1957) as the "necessary and sufficient conditions" for client personality change. Truax and Carkuff (1967) developed an experiential-didactic training program to train counsellors to communicate these conditions. This approach was further systematized and categorized in later studies. The result was Systematic Human Relations Training (SHRT). This model teaches the specific skills involved in the counselling process. The approach is developmental, that is, skills are taught one at a time.

Initial training involves trainees learning to establish a solid rapport with the helpee. Trainees are taught to use the core conditions of empathy, respect and warmth in rapport building. Effective attending behavior is stressed and non-judgmental listening is taught to the trainees. Trainees are then taught to observe the client's non-verbal behaviors, to make reflection of content and reflection of feeling statements to the client. This developmental process continues until the helper ultimately utilizes higher level skills to facilitate action on the part of the helpee.

The program is conducted by a trainer who models the core

condition skills. A discrimination-communication instructional methodology is the basis of the program. A rating scale was developed which defines the facilitative conditions at five different levels. These scales are used to assist trainees in defining effective levels of functioning. This program has been used successfully in training teachers (Hefele, 1971) as well as other lay and professional groups (Waters, Fink, Goodman & Parker, 1976).

Another training model is that provided by the National Training Laboratories (N.T.L.) Institute for Applied Behavioral Research. N.T.L. associates develop and conduct laboratories for industry, government, school executives, classroom teachers and others. The N.T.L. workshops involve demonstrations, skill practice and lectures with clearly defined trainer and trainee roles.

Butmar, a N.T.L. associate, states the Interpersonal Communications Program provides trainees competencies in:

- paraphrasing to assure understanding of what others are saying.
- behavior description as a skill to enable others to identify and recognize a specific behavior to which an individual is responding.
- describing, as distinguished from expressing, feelings.
- checking one's perception of others' feelings or intent.
- identifying non-verbal communication cues.
- applying guidelines to giving and receiving feedback.
- identifying the effects of expectations on communications.

- identifying the effects of feelings on communications.
- applying the concept of matching of behavior with intentions in communicating.
- identifying freeing and binding behaviors which affect openness of communication.
- applying the circular process model of interpersonal relations to identifying behaviors of one's own style of communicating.
- identifying the effects of directionality on communications.
- identifying patterns of communication.
- identifying the influence on one's personal style of communicating under pressure.
- applying techniques of assessing one's knowledge and skills in interpersonal communication.
- developing interpersonal support for improving communication skills (Paley, 1972, pp. 37-38).

Two other N.T.L. programs are of interest to this study: Communications: Speaking Precisely and Listening Carefully (Nylen, Mitchell & Stout, 1967); and One and Two-way Communication. Both programs call upon the learner to participate actively in experiences from which he can draw his own inferences and conclusions. Each exercise is presented in the form of a lesson plan in order to maximize potential use to beginning trainers or instructors in related fields. The N.T.L. approach is similar to that used by Carkuff (1971), it is a systematic

approach.

Another program designed for counsellor training is Interpersonal Process Recall (IPR) (Kagan & Krathwohl, 1967). This model employs extensive use of videotape feedback as a training tool. Welch (1976) clearly outlines the procedure:

> Two participants enter a room and begin their interview. When the interview is concluded, the tape is rewound and prepared for replay. The counsellor leaves the room and the inquirer takes his place. The recall session involves replaying the original session over a television monitor. A remote control switch permits either the subject or the inquirer to start and stop the videotape machine. The inquirer's function is to facilitate the subject's self-analysis of his underlying thoughts, feelings, images, expectations and general pattern of interaction with his counsellor. The inquirer attempts to avoid the formation of another counsellor-client relationship by keeping the client focused solely on the feelings or content of the original relationship. The inquirer must possess clinical skill in order to help the subject recognize underlying feelings, but he must act more like a clinical inquirer than like a counsellor or therapist. (p. 17).

Kagan's model concentrates on the helper-helpee interaction rather than teaching discrete skills. Certain skills are considered

important to effective counselling, however, Kagan feels that training in those skills is only a part of training in counselling effectiveness. In describing his training model, Kagan comments further on skill acquisition; "Skills are not enough. If people are frightened of each other then simply teaching them ways to get closer may have limited utility." (1975, p. 92).

The IPR model is a flexible model which has been used successfully in conjunction with other systematic human relations training programs such as microcounseling (Ivey, 1971). There is some question as to the effectiveness of the IPR approach. Kingdon (1975) reports that although clients in an IPR group increased in self-exploration levels, they were no more satisfied with the counselling experience than clients in the comparison group. "Clients reacted negatively to having to relate to a third person, thus affecting their overall satisfaction with the counselling experience" (Kingdon, 1975, p. 356).

These studies in human relations programs demonstrate the importance of training for counsellors and others in the helping profession. This emphasis on the process of interpersonal interaction was also found to be important in the classroom (Amidon & Flanders, 1963; Bales, 1951; Glasser, 1961; Gordon, 1974).

Classroom Interaction Research

Bales' (1951, 1970) interaction process analysis (IPA) focused in on people working in small groups. IPA was based upon observation of the actual interaction in which the "emphasis is laid upon first hand

observation in natural situations as the starting point for understanding personalities, rather than upon tests, questionnaires or experimental situations" (1970, p. v).

Similarly, studies of the role of the interaction of students and teacher in the classroom were conducted (Amidon & Flanders, 1967; Flanders, 1970). Flanders' interaction analysis systematically observes teacher verbal behavior in the classroom settings. The purpose of the analysis is to provide teachers with pertinent behavioral feedback so that they may obtain a better understanding of their own behavior. This information is then utilized by the teacher to develop more effective classroom verbal behavior.

Flanders defines the most important skills needed by the classroom teachers as follows:

> (1) ability to accept, clarify and use ideas, (2) ability to accept and clarify emotional expression, (3) ability to relate emotional expression to ideas, (4) ability to state objectively a point of view, (5) ability to reflect accurately the ideas of others, (6) ability to summarize ideas presented in group discussions, (7) ability to communicate encouragement, (8) ability to question others without causing defensive behavior, and (9) ability to use criticism with least possible harm to the status of the recipient. (Amidon & Flanders, 1963, p. 3)

Interaction analysis classifies all teacher statements as direct

or indirect. A direct teacher statement minimizes the freedom of a student to respond. An indirect teacher statement maximizes the freedom of a student to respond. Results of research involving direct and indirect teaching styles, as measured by interaction analysis, indicated that all types of students learned more working with the more indirect teachers than with the more direct teachers (Amidon & Flanders, 1961).

The implications of these early studies for the classroom teachers stress the need for more effective social skills of communication. Direct teachers use less effective communication skills, however, even indirect teacher's usage of effective communication skills is sparse. Also, "the better teachers showed a variety of patterns of behavior, while poorer teachers showed patterns that were much alike" (Amidon & Flanders, 1961, p. 60).

The implication of these results for teacher training necessitates the development for "some type of human relations training" (Amidon, et al., 1963, p. 61) as well as qualification in subject area. This training should allow the teacher to be supervised by a skillful trainer who models the communication skills and is "indirect" in his approach.

While Flanders recognizes the need for teacher qualification in content area, he stresses the need for human relations training. The following objectives are offered:

> ... first the ability to use social skills of accepting, clarifying, and using the ideas of students in planning work and diagnosing difficulties; second, knowledge of those acts to

> influence that restrict student reactions and those that expand student reactions; and third, understanding of a theory of instruction that can be used to control teachers' behavior in guiding classroom communication. (Amidon, et al., 1963, p. 61)

In a study which examined classroom behaviors of model teachers from a human relations framework, Chadbourne (1975) combined Flanders' Interaction Analysis (FIAC) and the Ivey Taxonomy. The Ivey Taxonomy (IT) is based upon specific skills used in counsellor and paraprofessional training (Ivey, 1971). Model teachers demonstrating microteaching skills were analyzed. The results of this study indicated that even model teachers appeared teacher centered since they were limited in the variety of their behaviors and tended to focus on content to the exclusion of student affect. For example, Chadbourne found that "student behavior which is only 16.5% talk time for teachers clearly reveals that the teacher is 'in charge' as Flanders (cited in Wilhelms, 1973) suggests. Flanders (1970) points out that in the field, teacher talk time is usually 68%" (1975, p. 161). The 'in charge' teacher and the predominant focus on topic (94.3%) was found to be related to lack of attention to affect. The teachers in Chadbourne's study failed to express their own feelings, did not reinforce student focus on feelings and failed to use basic human relations or counselling skills in their classroom interactions.

In effective communication, the student must be viewed as a viable contributing equal so that the enbalanced goal of a two-way process can be achieved. Effective communication has generally included a two-way

process in which the student is a viable contributing equal (Allen, 1975; Brown, 1969; Dewey, 1938; Dreikurs, 1964; Ginott, 1965; Glasser, 1969; Gordon, 1974; Holt, 1972; Ivey, 1971; Kagan & Krathwohl, 1967). Although the idea or concept can generally find rational agreement, studies such as those done by Chadbourne (1975) and Gordon (1974) reported earlier, indicate that the classroom communications continue to be one-way, dominated by a directive teacher. In order to change the ineffective communication systems found in many classrooms, teachers need to be aware of the skills and behaviors of effective professional communication.

Programs for Effective Classroom Interaction

Teacher Effectiveness Training (T.E.T.) was developed to provide teachers with more effective classroom communication skills (Gordon, 1974). The student is seen as a contributing and respected part of the communication process. Through the T.E.T. program, teachers are made aware of the impact of their communication on the students in their class. Gordon states:

> Each message adds another building block to the relationship you are constructing with that student. Each message reveals what you think of him and defines what he will ultimately think of himself. Your messages today become his self-concept tomorrow (1974, p. 50).

Almost all the teachers involved in T.E.T. programs respond ineffectively to student questions, concerns or problems before training. The responses typically fall into a category of one of Gordon's

"twelve roadblocks" to communications. These roadblocks tend to be unacceptance messages, that is, they "block further communications; they slow down, inhibit, or completely stop the two-way process of communication" (Gordon, 1974, p. 47).

In order to increase the effectiveness of classroom communication, teachers receiving T.E.T. are taught to use communication facilitators; "passive listening (silence), acknowledgement responses, door openers, invitations to talk and active listening (feedback)" (Gordon, 1974, p. 87). These facilitators shift the focus from teacher to student and permit a more open two-way communication.

Other educators and psychologists stress the importance of open communications between student and teachers. Rogers (1969) applies his "necessary and sufficient conditions of therapeutic personality change" (1957) to the classroom. Rogers submitted that if educators are interested in functional learnings that are impactful upon the person and his actions, then the approach of client centered psychotherapy might be implemented in education as "student centered" learning. The necessary and sufficient conditions are seen by Rogers as allowing the teacher and student to deal with relevant problems of their existence in a classroom climate which facilitates growth. This atmosphere of acceptance and caring allows for self-actualizing on the part of the student. As the self-actualized student initiates an interaction with his teacher, he will request knowledge and will not need it forced upon him.

The author (Rogers, 1959) reported that there is a paucity of

research into the student centered type classroom approach. However, factual and curricular learning was found to be roughly equal to the regular approach. Student centered classes show significant gains in personal adjustment, self-initiated extra curricular learning, in creativity and in self-responsibility. Using this latter approach, the "self-actualized" student will use the teacher as a resource person to turn to for materials and information in order to accomplish the requirements for his curricular decisions. In order for this shift in responsibility to take place, the student should be made to feel that he and his ideas or concerns are important (Rogers, 1959).

Student self-responsibility cannot be attained through teacher edict, ie. "you're junior high students now, so begin acting like young men and women". Movement of responsibility from teacher to student is accomplished by changes in the structure of classroom communications. The shift of responsibility, such as "owning the problem" as in T.E.T. (Gordon, 1974), is the focus of other programs geared towards improving communications (Brammer, 1973; Carkuff, 1971; Gazda, 1971; Ginott, 1965; Glasser, 1969; Morrison, 1977). Important in all these programs is that the teacher demonstrates care and genuine concern and that the student perceives and feels that teacher really does care and is concerned.

In helping educational "losers" to become "winners", Glasser (1969) views love and positive self-worth as the basic ingredients necessary for a successful school experience. Following the concepts of

Reality Therapy, the teacher must initially establish a warm and personal relationship with the student. This relationship then forms the foundation from which the student is free to (1) make value judgments, (2) form a plan, (3) be committed to it, (4) not make excuses and (5) be free of punishment. Glasser sees behavior change as arising out of a process which brings success and responsibility to the student without permitting the student to experience failure. To accomplish this "winner" attitude, teacher training may require changes. Glasser suggests that university teacher training programs include open-ended seminars in which trainees will learn teaching strategies in addition to management alternatives. His second suggestion is for student teachers to take fewer courses and instead spend time in additional practice teaching, acquiring and practicing skills under supervision (Glasser, 1969). It seems that Glasser and others view the acquisition of effective communication skills as a prerequisite to implementation of programs geared towards students.

One benefit of more effective classroom communications is to allow for a more positive student self-image (Ginott, 1965; Glasser, 1969; Gordon, 1974). Classroom behavior problems are more easily worked out when communications are functioning at a high level (Brammer, 1973; Carkuff, 1971; Ginott, 1965; Glasser, 1969). When the class atmosphere is free and open, when feeling as well as thinking is important, academic achievement will increase (Coleman, et al., 1966; Glasser, 1969; Rogers, 1959).

Communications training would be one way to increase the level of success in implementation of formal affective education programs (Dinkmeyer, 1973; Glasser, 1969; Palomares & Ball, 1974). These authors agree that teacher training should incorporate programs which provide teachers with specific skills for improving their ability to communicate in the classroom.

The information gathered in the review of the literature illustrates the value of communication training in teacher preparation. Therefore, programs aimed at teaching teachers more effective communication skills are important. The literature indicates that as the level of effective classroom communication is increased, the following student/teacher benefits can be anticipated:

1. increase positive student self-image,
2. increase in teacher level of classroom management,
3. increase academic achievement.

Microteaching

One approach which seems promising in teaching specific skills is microteaching (Allen & Ryan, 1969). It has been shown to be effective in teaching teachers academic instructional techniques in a short time. Microteaching focuses on training for specific tasks. The tasks have been the practice of instructional skills, the practice of techniques of teaching, the mastery of certain curricular materials or the demonstrations of teaching methods. Microteaching has been met with broad acceptance. Johnson's survey (in Allen & Ryan, 1969) showed about one-half

(53%) of all teacher-education programs used this paradigm with 4% of the schools surveyed reporting "extensive use". The microteaching approach has been used successfully in Australia (Turney, Clift, Dunkin & Traill, 1973), in a science methods course (Ashlock, 1968), in evaluation of teaching (Waimon & Ramseyer, 1970), in speech methods courses (Gibson, 1968), for establishing pre-service confidence (Huber & Ward, 1969) and in modification of teacher behavior (Koran, 1969).

Microteaching was designed to overcome many shortcomings in teacher education programs and to increase teacher understanding of the teaching/learning process (Perlberg, 1972). Microteaching is a laboratory technique in which the complexities of the normal classroom teaching are simplified. The trainee teaches a class of three to five students. The lesson is about 15 minutes long and is used to practice one particular teaching skill - such as lecturing or questioning. The lesson is recorded on videotape, then the trainee and his advisor view the lesson and restructure it. The trainee either repeats the lesson immediately, or after several days.

As presented by Perlberg (1972), the microteaching paradigm provides the teacher trainee with the following components which simplify the complexities of the teaching process:

1. Technical skills of teaching: a repertoire of teaching skills such as lecturing, questioning or leading a discussion.

2. The feedback element: the trainee receives feedback from his trainer or advisor immediately following his micro session.

Accurate feedback of behavior is critical to the improvement of teacher effectiveness.

3. Safe practice grounds: microteaching offers a safe practice ground for student teachers.

4. Teaching models: the trainee can view tapes of experienced teachers which aid in development of personalized techniques.

5. The research laboratory: the microteaching laboratory simplifies the act of teaching and provides opportunity for controlled research.

However, Perlberg (1972) and others (Allen, 1975; Brown & Armstrong, 1975; Copeland, 1975; Edwards, 1975) state that microteaching is only intended to be one aspect of a teacher education program. It should not be used in isolation but in conjunction with established teacher training approaches and newly developed techniques.

One reason why one cannot rely solely on microteaching can be found in the research conducted by Copeland (1975) which examines the relationship between microteaching and subsequent classroom performance. Thirty-six students were randomly assigned to four different groups. Two groups were taught the target skills of "asking higher order questions". Experimental and control groups were then field tested 8 to 20 weeks after training was completed. The results of testing for both target skills indicated no significant difference between groups.

Copeland (1975) discounted simple forgetting as the main factor

for lack of group difference. He believes that the practice teaching situation differs from the microteaching environment in two fundamental dimensions. The interaction of the behavior of the supervisory teacher and the increased number of pupils in the classroom hinders the transfer of the skills learned during microteaching.

Copeland's main conclusion is that microteaching has been undertaken with a rather simplistic attitude which disregards the reality of the classroom. He further suggests that skill acquisition has been overemphasized. Copeland (1975) goes on to state that other incidental benefits such as increased insight, ability for self-evaluation and self-confidence observed during the microteaching experience deserve research scrutiny.

In an earlier paper, Copeland and Doyle (1973) implied that skill training alone may not be enough for effecting skill performance in the classroom. Also, in another study measuring effectiveness of microteaching in developing actual classroom use of questioning skills, similar results were obtained (Petersen, 1973). Petersen (1973) found little difference between experimental and control groups in their frequency of displaying the desired behavior in the field. He concludes that student teachers may have been too busy during their first week of field experience to concentrate on using the specific skills.

The implication of the Copeland (1975) and Petersen (1973) research is that microteaching should not end in the laboratory setting but rather

be monitored or continued in the field. However, these results do not negate the need to simplify the complexities of the classroom in a laboratory setting using the microteaching approach. Therefore, evidence from the literature indicates that though microteaching provides a number of benefits, it should be used in conjunction with field experience and other teacher training approaches.

The preceding section has suggested that microteaching is successful in a number of settings (Ashlock, 1968; Gibson, 1968; Huber & Ward, 1969; Turney, Clift, Dunkin & Traill, 1973; Waimon & Ramseyer, 1970). On the other hand, some researchers (Copeland, 1975; Copeland & Doyle, 1973; Petersen, 1973) found that skills acquired in microteaching were not demonstrated in subsequent classroom performance. However, even this group considered microteaching as valuable in providing trainees with increased insight, ability for self-evaluation and self-confidence. About one-half of all teacher education programs use microteaching. Researchers indicate the approach is best applied as a component of the training program rather than as a substitute for field training experience (Allen, 1975; Brown & Armstrong, 1975; Copeland, 1975; Edwards, 1975; Perlberg, 1972).

Microteaching has been generally accepted as an effective method of acquiring teaching skills by teachers and it has generated much research. One approach which evolved out of microteaching research is microcounseling which provides specific skill training for beginning counsellors (Ivey, et al., 1968). This approach is of interest

because it stresses the importance of field use of specific skills in order for them to be incorporated as regular behaviors. It would seem that the microcounseling paradigm might provide answers to questions raised earlier regarding generalizability of specific skills in the classroom. For instance, inherent in the "do", "use", "teach" approach in microcounseling (Ivey, 1971), field experience and utilization of skills is important. "Learned skills only maintain themselves if used and extended into other environments" (Ivey & Gluckstern, 1974, p. 7).

Microcounseling

Ivey (1971) defines microcounseling in the following manner:

> Microcounseling is a scaled down sample of counselling in which beginning counsellors talk with volunteer clients during brief 5-minute counselling sessions which are video-recorded. The scaled down sessions focus on specific counselling skills or behavior. Microcounseling provides an opportunity for those preparing to counsel to obtain a liberal amount of practice without endangering clients. (p. 1).

Ivey (1971) outlines several essential propositions of the microcounseling model:

1. It is possible to lessen the complexity of the counselling or interviewing process through focusing on single skills.
2. Microtraining techniques provide important opportunities

for self-observation and confrontation.

3. Interviewers can learn from observing video models demonstrating the skills they are seeking to learn.

4. Microcounseling is a method which can be used to teach interviewing skills in a wide area of diverse theoretical and practical frameworks.

5. Microtraining sessions are real interviewing. (p. 8)

The basic microcounseling model incorporates contributions from a number of theoretical positions. Carkuff (in Ivey, 1971) states that microcounseling "is a preferred technique of skills acquisition, for it is based upon the principle of practicing that which we wish to effect" (p. ix).

Ivey's basic microcounseling model provides for the following progressive steps:

1. The trainee receives instructions to enter a room where he will interview a client. Depending on the situation the topic may or may not be defined. Similar instructions are given to the volunteer client with the exception that he is told he is about to be interviewed.

2. A 5 - minute diagnostic session (with the trainee interviewing the client) is then videotaped.

3. The client leaves the room and completes an evaluation form or may be interviewed by a second supervisor. These data are then available for the supervisory session with the

trainee.

4. The trainee reads a written manual describing the specific skill to be learned in this session. The supervisor talks with him about the session and about the manual.

5. Video models of an expert demonstrating the specific skill are shown. There may be a positive and a negative model of the skill.

6. The trainee is shown his initial interview and discusses this with his supervisor. He is asked to identify examples where he engaged in or failed to apply the specific skill in question.

7. The supervisor and trainee review the skill together and plan for the next counselling session.

8. The trainee reinterviews the same client for five minutes.

9. Feedback and evaluation on the final session are made available to the trainee. (Ivey, 1971, p. 8)

This basic microcounseling model allows for many possible variations. One variation is the use of the paradigm in groups in which vicarious learning would be a component part. This approach allows for maximizing workshop time in that skills are learned continually and then demonstrated and made more effective by trainer/trainee feedback and interaction. Ivey stresses the role of relationship skills on the part of the trainer: "most important, the super-

visor in a microcounseling training session must model the skills he is teaching" (Ivey, et al., 1974, p. 7).

The paradigm provides the framework for learning specific skills experientially. The microcounseling model is flexible, it allows the student to practice and demonstrate the skill he has learned. Like microteaching, the microcounseling paradigm has generated research in a wide variety of training situations.

Related Literature in Microcounseling

Microcounseling research began in 1968 when Ivey, Normington, Miller, Morrill and Haase studied the use of video as a method of training counsellors in basic skills of counselling within a short period of time. Three groups of beginning counsellors were taught three different skills using the microcounseling approach. Counsellor trainees demonstrated significant improvement in attending behavior, reflection of feelings and summarization of feelings. The research focused on attending behavior which is the interpersonal skill of attending to a person both verbally and non-verbally. Results of the research indicated significant differences between experimental and control groups on eye contact and verbal following components of attending behavior. Counsellors in the experimental group were rated significantly higher than clients interviewed by control group counsellors. A 5-point rating scale was used to rate the non-verbal components of attending behavior.

Numerous studies of the systematic approach of the microcounseling followed the 1968 work of Ivey et al. Ivey (1971) presents an

extensive review of microcounseling research in which he cites over 100 references. These references form the practical and theoretical foundations of the training procedure.

One study conducted to validate outcome of the attending skills training program involved teaching attending behavior to junior high school students (Aldrige, 1971). In attempting to prove experimentally that younger people could learn counselling skills, Aldrige used frequency counts of behavior (behavioral counts).

Aldrige (1971) designed an eight hour rater training program, .90 or better inter-rater reliability was reached on behaviorally defined observations. Students who had received microcounseling training had fewer eye contact breaks, less bodily movement, less speaking time during the interview and less frequent topic changes. The microcounseling students were rated as more effective than the controls by those whom they interviewed. These behavioral counts were obtained while teaching the skill of attending behavior to junior high school students (Aldrige, 1971). The movement to precise behavioral counts avoided the subjectivity of the five point scales. Ivey reports:

> A variety of studies have examined single skills and dimensions of modeling and instructions. The sum and substance of these studies has been to validate that the constructs mentioned within the attending skills training program do in fact exist and that skills can be taught systematically. (Ivey, et al., 1976, p. 1)

The microcounseling model has been used in work with resident psychiatric patients (Donk, 1972), work with children (Goshko, 1973), in training parents (Bizer, 1972; Gluckstern, 1972, 1973) and with a wide range of professionals including teachers (Chadbourne, 1975; Hemmer, 1975; Ivey & Rollin, 1972; Kerrebrock, 1971).

Hemmer's Research. One important study, since pre-service elementary education students were used as subjects, was conducted by Hemmer (1975). Due to this study's pertinence to the current investigation, it is necessary to discuss Hemmer's work in detail. The specific objectives were: "(1) to increase teacher trainee effectiveness in interpersonal helping skills; and (2) to demonstrate the feasibility of a 'personalization' model, as part of teacher education" (Hemmer, 1975, p. 1). The purpose of the study was to determine whether a brief communications skill training program using the microcounseling model would significantly increase response repertoire of teacher trainees and subsequently increase their level of effectiveness in communication skills.

Hemmer's (1975) subjects (41 female, 5 male), all student teachers, were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. Two control groups received no treatment and served as a comparison for the two experimental groups in evaluating treatment.

Hemmer administered programmed materials called "open mutual communications" in the microcounseling paradigm as follows:

1. All 46 students were videotaped by pairs in a 5-minute diagnostic communications task.

2. The 26 experimental subjects next completed the brief programmed training using videotaped models, text discussions and practice of the communication skills taught. Training was focused upon specific behaviors such as attending to feeling as well as to content, sharing of personal experiences, talking in the "here and now" as opposed to past or future, utilizing non-verbal cues, using verbal following behaviors, listening skills and personal referents.

3. Following the presentation of programmed materials, the experimental subjects viewed their own videotaped interview with a randomly assigned counsellor in a private, structured self-confrontation session in which the behaviors being taught were modeled by the counsellors and selective reinforcement was given by the counsellors for the subjects' appropriate behaviors on the initial tapes. Alternative responses were suggested where appropriate as prompts for learning the skills.

4. Second videotaping sessions were conducted in which the experimental subjects engaged in another 5-minute interaction by pairs to demonstrate the skills they had learned.

5. Another private feedback and self-confrontation session with the counsellors was held in which the second videotape segment was reviewed and skills of communication were practiced further.

6. As a final step, subjects demonstrated the skill in a third videotaped interview with "strangers" (peers from other classes, but not acquaintances of the participants)(p. 4). Each member of the experimental group received approximately six hours of treatment (1975).

Four data sources were used in evaluation: videotape rating, a semantic differential scale to evaluate the effectiveness of the interview, the Affective Sensitivity Scale and frequency counts of specific response classes.

Findings indicated that teacher trainees significantly improved in their facilitative ability in the interview situation on five of 14 measures. The most important finding supports the concept of training preservice teachers in specific communication skills. "Ratings on two essential dimensions of facilitative conditions in helping relations, empathy and respect, evidenced that the trainees were superior to their untrained controls in actual interview situations" (Hemmer, 1975, p. 8).

Hemmer noted confusion on the part of some student teachers, some anger was expressed by those who felt that learning methods of discipline and control over students would be more useful in the classroom. However, other student teachers expressed a feeling of completeness at having the training in human relations after being trained as primarily a teacher of facts. "The emphasis upon content and methods seemed to have excluded the communication of the 'human' or personal side of what it means to become a teacher" (Hemmer, 1975, p. 11).

In another study, in-service teachers received microcounseling training in three different skills; attending behavior, reflection of feeling and expression of feeling (Kerrebrock, 1971). Thirty-six high school teachers who were academic advisors were randomly assigned

to experimental and control groups. Controls conducted initial 5-minute videotapes with a student and a final 5-minute videotaped session. The experimental groups received microcounseling training in the three skills. Results showed the experimental groups significantly different in reflection of feeling and expression of feeling while there were no significant differences in attending behavior between experimental and control groups.

Following development of the skill of interpretation by Moreland and Ivey, Rollin (1970) used interpretation training with teachers who were to develop alternative responses to the classroom situation. Ivey (1971) cites Levy's (1963) definition of interpretation:

> To sum up psychological interpretation, viewed as a behavior . . . consists of bringing an alternate frame of reference, or language system, to bear upon a set of observations or behaviors, with the end in view of making them more amiable to manipulation. (p. 7)

Rollin (1970) found that systematic training of teachers to provide them with alternate response categories was effective. Experimental group subjects generated more responses than the untrained controls.

Summary

The microcounseling paradigm provides one framework in which specific skills can be acquired in a short period of time. The study by Chadbourne (1975) cited earlier stated "Skills of human relations such as reflection of feeling, paraphrasing and self-disclosure could enrich

the teaching process" (p. 164). Ivey believes that "the first job of helpers is to listen carefully to the helpee and to facilitate self-exploration and decision making" (Ivey, et al., 1974, p. 3). This basically client-centered approach is supported in the literature (Brammer, 1973; Brown, 1969; Carkuff, 1971; Flanders, 1970; Gordon, 1974; Holt, 1964) by psychologists and educators. As cited by Ivey (1971), numerous studies have examined the overall effectiveness of microcounseling. However, it should be remembered that listening skills provide only the initial foundation for more sophisticated helping skills, for example, self-disclosure and problem solving. Ivey states that "moving beyond a level three Carkuff response using only attending skills ... could be considered to put microtraining at a disadvantage" (Ivey, et al., 1976, p. 4).

The studies cited here suggest that microcounseling is an effective approach to communications training. The system is open, that is, it calls for change or adaptation for training different people in different situations. Specific skills of listening can be taught and measured and microcounseling "stands up well in systematic tests of changes in helpers and helpees" (Ivey, et al., 1976, p. 8).

It has been seen in the review of the literature that microcounseling shows promise, however, more information pertaining to the paradigm's use with teachers is needed. Questions have been raised concerning the acquisition of specific skills, pre-service teacher confusion as to the importance of communication skills, the effect of videotape recording on performance and the amount of time required for

successful skill acquisition. Although some of the studies question the effectiveness of the micro approach, the majority of the research stated that microtraining is a valid and effective approach towards skill acquisition. Therefore, this study will examine the effectiveness of the microcounseling paradigm in teaching communication skills to pre-service teachers.

Research Questions

The primary question of this research may be stated in the following way: following participation in a modified microcounseling workshop, will pre-service teachers demonstrate increased use of the skills presented? The specific research questions were as follows:

1. Will there be a significant difference in subject use of attending skills (eye contact, posture, gesticulation and verbal following) between pre-test and posttest videotapes?

2. Will there be a significant difference in subject use of the skills of focus (open, closed questions, non-verbal and verbal minimal encouragers, and teacher talk time) between the pre-test and posttest videotapes?

3. Will there be a significant difference in the number of paraphrases subjects use in the pre-test and posttest videotapes?

4. Will there be a significant difference in each of the three general skill areas: attending, focus and paraphrasing between the posttest group and the delay group videotaped following a one week delay?

Chapter III

Design and Analysis

The studies cited in the review of the related literature have indicated a need for basic communications training in preparing teachers for the classroom. The present study was designed to provide additional information regarding the effectiveness of the microcounseling paradigm by modifying it for use with groups. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to develop a microcounseling workshop and evaluate its effectiveness in training teachers in basic communication skills.

The microcounseling paradigm (Ivey, 1971) was modified to develop an instructional package to teach teachers listening skills. The program was incorporated into a workshop format and consisted of three groups of listening skills; attending, focus and paraphrasing. These basic listening skills were selected as they provide the foundation from which more sophisticated communication skills might be acquired (Brammer, 1973; Ivey, et al., 1974).

Program Development

Selection of the listening skills to be included in the program was based upon the review of the literature (Aldrige, 1971; Brammer, 1973; Chadbourne, 1975; Hemmer, 1975; Ivey & Gluckstern, 1974). For a detailed description of the listening skills, refer to the section in Chapter III entitled "Description of Variables for Rating" and Appendix A.

The original microcounseling paradigm is a structural or methodological approach which provides a framework from which specific skills

might be acquired systematically. The framework allows for skill acquisition regardless of theoretical orientation, although the paradigm eclectically incorporates learning, discrimination and relationship skills into the procedure.

The modified format differed from the original Ivey approach in that the subjects in this research were trained to work with groups rather than individuals. That is, the subjects practiced and developed the skills of more effective listening while working with small groups of peers roleplaying elementary students rather than the "one-to-one" approach used in the microcounseling model. Allen (1971) advocated such adaptations and modifications as an integral part of microcounseling research. "Rather than using these procedures in a set, prescribed manner, experiment and develop microtraining in your own unique fashion" (Allen in Ivey, 1971, p. xiii).

The workshop consisted of a total of 12 hours divided into two 6-hour periods held on consecutive days. It included brief lectures, handouts, roleplaying, individual videotaping, individual group critique and discussion.

The workshop followed the general model developed by Ivey and Gluckstern (1974) with adaptations made to make it more relevant to teachers. It was also adapted so that up to 15 subjects could participate at any one time. The program was designed so that it could be used either in conjunction with a university course or as an in-service workshop for practicing teachers. A more detailed outline of the workshop

and procedures used can be found in Appendix A. On the basis of this study, some refinements to the program were expected and these were incorporated into a final revision of the workshop (Appendix B).

Workshop Format

Introduction - micro-group assignment
- videotape recording - introduction

Attending - eye contact, gesticulation, posture, verbal following

Focus - open-ended questions, closed questions, non-verbal and verbal minimal encouragers, teacher talk time

Paraphrasing - stages - verbatim, key words, essence

Summary - videotape - importance of skill use in field

Brief Summary of the Workshop Format

The workshop was divided into five sections (introduction, attending, focus, paraphrasing and summary). The introduction consisted in part of a brief welcome followed immediately by a random assignment to micro-groups for initial VTR familiarization. Micro-groups refers to the small groups formed within the workshop wherein specific skills are practiced and demonstrated using VTR. Basic knowledge of equipment set up and operation of VTR in addition to brief informal individual videotaping was required of all members of each workshop group.

The introduction consisted of a discussion of the Ivey format followed by a videotape lecture prepared specifically for the workshop. This lecture/modeling tape was designed and developed for use in each of the five segments mentioned earlier. Each of the component parts

of attending, focus and paraphrasing were first discussed in a video lecture, then each of the components were demonstrated in a video modeling tape. The models were a teacher and a psychologist who were taped interacting with elementary school children who had volunteered for the modeling sequences.

The attending section began with each subject individually videotaping their idea of ineffective teacher attending behavior. This is an effective group icebreaker and generally brings the group together into a relaxed atmosphere. After a brief group viewing of the ineffective attending tapes, a discussion on effective attending was conducted.

A brief lecture was followed by in-class reading of the attending handout by all subjects. The videotape lecture and modeling tape on effective attending was presented. A brief discussion of the attending tape and behavior count charting was held before the workshop was once again divided into micro-groups. Participants remained in the same micro-group throughout the workshop period. Specific component parts of attending were practiced in dyads in the smaller groups. Individual videotapes were made by subjects demonstrating each of the specific component parts of attending. The individual tapes were recorded during a micro-group discussion in which subjects roleplayed upper elementary school children. One member acted a teacher in demonstrating the component attending skills while conducting a simulated classroom discussion. The discussion topics were selected by the group and were chosen as to their appropriateness in the upper elementary milieu.

Each of the individual videotapes were played and critiqued by the individual, trainer and the micro-group using the behavioral rating charts. Successful videotape demonstration was expected by each subject; those who experienced difficulty in demonstrating the behaviors or who requested additional work made a second or third tape until each of the attending behaviors were acquired. This procedure of demonstrating the required behaviors was followed for each of the listening skill areas.

The focus segment began with a brief lecture, reading of the focus handout, videotaped lecture and modeling demonstration tape. The micro-groups at this point were familiar with the concept of a microtraining situation and utilized time more efficiently. The program was structured, calling for a high level of co-operation within the micro-group in order to meet time commitments and adequate levels of skill acquisition by each subject.

It should be noted that although the program was a structured systematic approach to acquisition and demonstration of specific discrete skills, it also involved highly personal individual and group interaction with the trainer. The importance of relationship skills on the part of the trainer or supervisor is stressed throughout the microcounseling literature. "A friendly, warm and genuine attitude on the part of the individual supervising a microtraining session is essential. Most important, the supervisor in a microcounseling training session must model the skills he is teaching" (Ivey, et al., 1974, p. 7).

In this workshop it was found that many of the subjects had not

previously used VTR and had limited experience in group process and organization. Therefore, it was important that the trainer take an active role in allaying "camera anxiety" and facilitating a warm, unthreatening atmosphere in each of the groups. Basically, the format was structured and behavioral in approach, however, it was found that the trainer's skill modeling, enthusiasm and rapport with subjects was a critical part of the workshop's effective functioning.

Dyad roleplaying in practicing the component parts of focus was followed by individual videotaping by each subject. These individual videotapes were then viewed by the trainer and the individual with the micro-group scoring the behavioral rating chart during the viewing. At times the videotape would be stopped and replayed to point out a particularly effective or ineffective behavior which was noted by the micro-group or individual whose tape was being viewed. Focusing on the individual's strengths and demonstrations of effective listening skills was readily accepted by the group. The subjects whose tapes had just been viewed would generally initiate discussion on personal skills which needed improvement. This approach of positive support from the group allowed for more self-disclosure by the individual and insured a nonthreatening atmosphere.

As with all the basic listening skill segments, it was required that all subjects of each group successfully demonstrate on videotape each of the specific component behaviors of focus. Those who experienced difficulty in skill demonstration or requested additional taping time made

second or third tapes with the help of other group members. A brief discussion of the component skills of focus and the noting of particularly effective demonstration tapes ended the segment.

The fourth part of the workshop and last of the specific listening behaviors, was paraphrasing. A brief introduction to paraphrasing, reading of the paraphrasing handout, viewing of the videotape lecture and modeling videotape were presented. Paraphrasing was practiced in dyads. Upon the completion of the "stage learning" (Appendix A) procedure of paraphrasing, the group met with the trainer. The trainer roleplayed an elementary school student and randomly called upon subjects to paraphrase his statements. Individual videotapes were made by each subject acting as teacher while group members roleplayed upper elementary students participating in a group discussion. The individual videotapes were then replayed and discussed by the subject and the trainer with the group using the behavior rating charts. Paraphrasing was considered the highest level skill presented in the workshop. A number of subjects made additional tapes in order to successfully demonstrate effective paraphrasing.

The summary portion of the workshop began with a brief review of the three basic listening skills; attending, focus and paraphrasing. This was followed by a brief lecture videotape and a modeling videotape. Each subject was videotaped conducting a small micro-group discussion with new topics provided by the trainer. (This taping acted as the posttest which is discussed in the section on procedure). After viewing and discussion of the last individual tape, the group viewed a final videotaped

discussion with the professional and elementary student models. The videotape consisted of the trainer modeling the listening skills involved in the workshop in eliciting candid reactions about actual classroom communications from the elementary students who had appeared in the modeling tapes prepared for the workshop. The workshop was concluded with a brief re-emphasis on the "do", "use", "teach" concept (Ivey, 1971). Participants were reminded now that they had learned the skills, it was important that they be used on a regular basis and it was recommended that they teach the basic listening skills to their students.

A detailed description of the program and the procedures used can be found in the Workshop Handbook (see Appendix A).

Sample

The subjects for the study were 54 students enrolled in an undergraduate course in Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta entitled "Introduction to Guidance". All subjects volunteered to participate in the communications program and were assigned to 1 of 3 workshops according to personal preference and availability. Subjects were asked to submit in writing which of three workshops they were able to attend. Those who indicated availability for two or more of the workshop dates were then randomly assigned to groups.

Table 1

Numbers and Percentages of Males and Females in the 3 Groups

	Males		Females		Total
Groups	N	%	N	%	N
Group 1	5	29%	12	71%	17
Group 2	5	25%	15	75%	20
Group 3	9	53%	8	47%	17
Total	19	35%	35	65%	54

The familiarization period involved acquainting the workshop participants with the operation of the videotape equipment. As a great deal of emphasis in the workshop is placed on the use of the VTR, it was essential that at least one person in each group was familiar and comfortable with it's operation.

Treatment Conditions - Procedure

Treatment conditions for all subjects consisted initially of a 5-minute videotaped discussion session with group members who roleplayed upper elementary students. The subjects selected a topic from a list provided by the trainer and were instructed to conduct a discussion with a small group of students. A list of current events topics, appropriate for upper level elementary students was compiled. The list of discussion topics was the same for all subjects and appears as Appendix F. These initial videotapes preceded treatment (the workshop) and were retained as pre-test data.

Following treatment, two of the workshop groups once again were videotaped conducting a discussion session with group members role-playing upper elementary students. The subjects selected a different topic from the list provided by the trainer. Subjects were given the same instructions as in the initial taping, that was to conduct a discussion session with a small group of students. These 5-minute videotapes were retained as posttest data.

The third workshop group was requested to return one week following treatment. Subjects selected a topic from the list provided by the

trainer and were given the same instructions as in the initial taping, that was to conduct a discussion session with a small group of students. These 5-minute videotapes were retained as delayed posttest data.

The camera angle and position for each of the individual videotapes used in pre-test, posttest and delayed posttest were the same. The camera was placed behind the roleplayed elementary students; the camera angle provided for videotaping of the subjects' middle and upper trunk. This type of camera picture was decided upon because it allowed for the necessary level of detail for rating the subjects' behaviors. Only the subject appeared on the videotape although the audio portion included both the subject and the roleplayed students.

Research Design

Two groups were administered a pre-test as part of the workshop and a posttest immediately after treatment. The third group was administered a pre-test as part of the workshop and a delayed posttest one week after treatment.

Table 2
Research Design

	N		Pre-test	Treatment (Workshop)	Posttest	Delayed Posttest
	Orig.	Rev.				
Group 1	17	14	0	X	0	
Group 2	20	14	0	X	0	
Group 3	17	10	0	X		0

Rating

Two graduate students in the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta were trained to rate the dependent variables.

The judges had previous rating experience using the Bales Scales (Bales, 1951) and were trained to rate the frequency of occurrence of each of the 8 variables for this study. Each of the variables were behaviorally defined as an important aspect of this study was to use behavioral counts to measure the verbal and non-verbal components under investigation. Training involved the use of 13 sample tapes which were rated separately and together by the raters; this process was continued until agreement was reached in scoring for each variable. Following training, 39 segments were randomly selected and scored by the two independent raters. Inter-rater reliability as compiled using a Pearson R was .88 for all variables. The inter-rater reliability for each variable and measured by Pearson R appears in Table 3. The behavioral rating sheet used by the raters appears as Appendix E and a description of the dimensions upon which judgments were made appears below.

Table 3

Inter-rater reliability compiled for each variable and measured by Pearson R

Variable	
Eye Contact	.95
Closed Questions	.95
Posture	.84
Gesticulation	
Non-verbal minimal encouragers	.83
Verbal following and verbal minimal encouragers	.84
Open Questions	.78
Paraphrasing	.93

Description of Variables for Rating

The focus of the rating was the behavior of the roleplaying teacher who is referred to hereafter as the subject.

Eye Contact. Eye contact was defined as the number of eye contact breaks, that is, any looking by the subject (roleplaying teachers) to the side, up or down, when being spoken to by an individual (roleplaying student), or any looking to the side, up or down, by the subject when speaking to an individual. When speaking to the group as a whole, an eye contact break was defined as any looking up or down. Each time the subject overted his gaze elsewhere, the raters recorded this movement.

Closed Questions. Closed questions were defined as the number of questions by the subject which changed the student's topic of discussion or requested specific information. The key to the definition of closed questions was focus, that is, closed questions focus on information of interest to the subject rather than the student.

Posture. Posture was defined as the number of movements towards an individual who was speaking to the subject or movement towards the group or an individual when the subject was speaking. This movement could be a newly initiated forward trunk lean, a lateral position change moving closer to speaker or group, or a change in posture which opened towards the group. Each time the subject's posture changed towards the group, the raters recorded the movement.

Gesticulation and Non-verbal Minimal Encouragers. Gesticulation and non-verbal minimal encouragers were combined for rating under the same heading. The number of facial expressions, hand and body gesticulations used by the subject to encourage a student to continue

to express his idea or concern were included in this variable. This combination was defined for rating as any non-verbal gesture by the subject which is followed immediately by a verbal response by the student. Raters also were instructed to score this variable when a student paused or was silent, and then after a gesticulation or non-verbal minimal encourager, the student continued his verbalization.

Verbal Following and Minimal Verbal Encouragers. Verbal following and minimal verbal encouragers were combined for rating. This combination was defined as the number of statements made by the subject which focused on the student's previous statement or any word or combination of words by the subject which is immediately followed by a verbalization by the student.

Examples might be:

"go on" "Umm-humm"

"I see" "uh-huh"

"ok!" "fishing's fun" (following a student statement on how much he likes fishing)

The statement or word emitted by the subject must be directly related to the student's topic; questions or the introduction of new material by the subject were not scored by the raters.

Open-Ended Questions. Open-ended questions are broad questions which focus on the student and give the student choices in answering. According to Ivey (1971):

Open invitation to talk may be viewed as an extension of

attending behavior in that it directs attention to the client's needs and wishes rather than to those of the interviewer. By focusing attention on the client's communication, it becomes possible to understand him and his ideas more fully. (p. 55)

Questions which might begin with the words, "what, "how" and "could" would normally be counted as open questions.

Benjamin (1969) differentiated between open and closed questions quite clearly:

> The open question is broad, the closed question narrow. The open question allows the interviewee full scope; the closed question limits him to a specific answer. The open question invites him to widen his perceptual field; the closed question curtails it. The open question solicits his views, opinion, thoughts and feelings; the closed question usually demands cold facts only. The open question may widen and deepen contact; the closed question may circumscribe it. In short, the former may open wide the door to good rapport: the latter keeps it shut. (p. 64)

Open-ended questions were defined as the number of on topic questions by the subject which focused on the student's previous verbalizations and which did not change the topic or request specific information.

Paraphrasing. Paraphrasing was defined as the number of

statements made by the subject (teacher) which reflected back to the roleplaying student the essence of his verbal content. The subject's paraphrase should indicate to the student that the subject understood the essence of the content of the statement. Raters counted paraphrases directed towards the group as a whole or individuals in the group.

Teacher Talk Time. Teacher (subject) talk time was defined as the subject's total verbalization throughout the segment. Raters used a stopwatch to measure the duration of subject utterance.

Analysis of Data

The sample was divided into three experimental groups. Groups 1 and 2 (posttest groups) were administered pre-test prior to treatment and posttest immediately following treatment. Posttest data were recorded approximately 1½ days (31 hours) after the pre-test. Group 3 (delayed posttest group) was administered the pre-test prior to treatment, posttest was recorded one week (7 days) later. The purpose of the one week delay for Group 3 was to measure the short term effect of the treatment.

The original sample for this experiment consisted of 54 subjects. Therefore, 54 pre-test and posttest tapes were planned totalling 108 taped segments. Due to VTR malfunction, audio and video distortion, 32 tape segments were not considered of sufficient quality for rating. Therefore, a total of 76 tape segments randomly assigned to master tapes were evaluated by trained raters. Further discussion of implication of the unuseable tape segments appears in Chapter V. The subsequent changes in

group N's appears under "Rev." in Table 2 (p. 50).

Subjects were differentiated according to the level of entry skills in communication and based upon pre-test scores, were assigned to high or low level groups for each variable. Classification was determined by relative pre-test performance. Convenient breaks in the range of scores roughly dividing subjects into the two groups and maintaining requisite N for statistical analysis were considered of importance when carrying out this division.

The original subject tapes were of approximately five minutes (300 seconds) duration for both pre and posttest. For purposes of rating, this segment length was reduced to 3½ minutes (210 seconds). The first 45 seconds and the last 45 seconds on each tape were edited out. This editing was necessary to allow for continuity and objectivity in providing a representative behavioral sample for rating. In most segments, the initial part of the tape involved introduction of the topic by the subject. The subject behaviors inherent in the introduction of topic were not considered as representative of the communications behaviors being rated in this study. It was further decided that the last part of each segment which generally involved summation by the subject, should also be deleted. The subject behaviors involved in summation were not considered as representative of the communication behaviors being rated in this study.

The results were analyzed for difference between post and delay groups using a one-way analysis of variance with repeated measures.

One variable (gesticulation) was tested using a "t" test. The "t" test for this variable was necessitated due to lack of variance in the pre-test scores. In all cases of analysis, in this study, significance was set at the 0.05 level. (Appendix D)

In addition to the one-way analysis of variance which tested the major hypothesis, a two-way ANOVA was used post hoc to examine the relationship between subjects in posttest and delay groups entering the workshop with different levels of communication skills. It was felt that the additional information derived from the two-way ANOVA would add clarity to hypothesis testing.

Hypotheses

The following are a list of null hypotheses tested in the study:

1. There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on eye contact (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating") for the experimental groups.

2. There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on closed questions (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating") for the experimental groups.

3. There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on posture (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating") for the experimental groups.

4. There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on gesticulation and non-verbal minimal encouragers (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating")

for the experimental groups.

5. There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on verbal following and minimal verbal encouragers (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating") for the experimental groups.

6. There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on open-ended questions (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating") for the experimental groups.

7. There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on paraphrasing (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating") for the experimental groups.

8. There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on teacher talk time (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating") for the experimental groups.

Chapter IV

Results and Conclusions

In this chapter, a statistical analysis of the results of this study is given. The discussion deals with each hypothesis in turn and gives appropriate data and resulting conclusions. Three analyses were carried out on the data for each variable. Two one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) with repeated measures assessed the difference between pre and posttest scores of each group. (Groups 1 and 2 considered together and Group 3 (delay) considered independently.) A two-way ANOVA with repeated measures dealt with differences in level of communication entry skill, differences between posttest and delay groups and the interaction effect between them. Due to the absence of variance in pre-test scores on variable 4, "t" test statistics were calculated to assess differences.

Group means and standard deviations for pre-test, posttest scores for Groups 1, 2 and 3 are contained in Table 4 which appears below.

Table 4

Group Means & Standard Deviations for

GROUPS 1 & 2

Variable	Pre-Test		Posttest		Delayed Posttest	
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
1. Eye Contact	9.483	8.002	3.103	4.349		
2. Closed Questions	9.862	6.055	4.483	2.884		
3. Posture	7.552	3.358	5.586	1.884		
4. Gesticulation and non-verbal minimal encouragers	0.138	0.344	1.759	1.869		
5. Verbal Following & minimal verbal encouragers	2.379	2.497	3.690	2.627		
6. Open-ended questions	1.000	1.050	2.103	1.748		
7. Paraphrasing	0.345	0.657	3.759	1.976		
8. Teacher Talk Time	114.448	33.843	61.414	31.092		
GROUP 3						
1. Eye Contact	10.444	9.202			1.556	1.342
2. Closed Questions	6.667	4.853			5.556	3.303
3. Posture	6.111	3.212			4.778	1.617
4. Gesticulation and non-verbal minimal encouragers	0.111	0.314			0.556	0.831
5. Verbal Following & minimal verbal encouragers	1.444	1.770			2.778	1.227
6. Open-ended questions	1.222	2.148			1.444	1.706
7. Paraphrasing	0.556	0.496			2.778	1.227
8. Teacher Talk Time	126.000	47.595			61.414	19.587

Null Hypothesis #1

Null hypothesis #1 states: There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on eye contact (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating") for the experimental groups.

Findings. A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed the difference between pre-test and posttest scores of Groups 1 and 2 for eye contact. A significant difference between the measures of the dependent variable was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.05 level of significance which was the criteria for the analysis in this study. (Refer to Table 5)

Table 5

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Groups 1 & 2 - Eye Contact

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	1691.51	28	60.41		
Within People	1304.50	29	44.98		
Treatments	590.08	1	590.08	23.1272	0.00005
Residual	714.41	28	25.51		
Total	2996.01	57			

A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed the difference between pre-test and delayed posttest scores of Group 3 for eye contact. A significant difference between the measures of the dependent variable was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.05 level of significance. (Refer to Table 6)

Table 6

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Group 3 - Eye Contact

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	443.00	8	55.37		
Within People	691.00	9	76.77		
Treatments	355.55	1	355.55	8.4796	.01953
Residual	335.44	8	41.93		
Total	1134.00	17			

Conclusion. In view of the above findings, null hypothesis #1 is rejected. Following treatment, Groups 1, 2 and 3 demonstrated significantly fewer eye contact breaks.

Null Hypothesis #2

Null hypothesis #2 states: There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on closed questions (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating") for the experimental groups.

Findings. A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed the difference between pre-test and posttest scores of Groups 1 and 2 for closed questions. A significant difference between the measures of the dependent variable was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.05 level of significance which was the criteria for the analysis in this study. (Refer to Table 7)

Table 7

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Groups 1 & 2 - Closed Questions

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	594.27	28	21.22		
Within People	1130.00	29	38.96		
Treatments	419.58	1	419.58	16.5374	0.00035
Residual	710.41	28	25.37		
Total	1724.27	57			

A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed the difference between pre-test and posttest scores of Group 3 for closed questions. No significant difference between the measures of the dependent variable was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.05 level of significance. (Refer to Table 8)

Table 8

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Group 3 - Closed Questions

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	164.77	8	20.59		
Within People	151.00	9	16.77		
Treatments	5.55	1	5.55	0.3056	0.59552
Residual	145.44	8	18.18		
Total	315.77	17			

Conclusion. In view of the above findings, null hypothesis #2 is rejected for Groups 1 and 2 (posttest) and supported for Group 3 (delay). This indicates there was significant difference between pre-test and post-test performance in the use of closed questions by Groups 1 and 2. Table 4 illustrates a decrease in the use of closed questions by those two groups.

It should be noted that Group 3 showed a decrement in the use of closed questions but this did not reach statistical significance.

Null Hypothesis #3

Null hypothesis #3 states: There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on posture (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating") for the experimental groups.

Findings. A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed the difference between pre-test and posttest scores of Groups 1 and 2 for posture. A significant difference between the measures of the dependent variable was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.05 level of significance which was the criteria for the analysis in this study. (Refer to Table 9)

Table 9

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Groups 1 & 2 - Posture

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	204.72	28	7.31		
Within People	281.50	29	9.70		
Treatment	56.01	1	56.01	6.9561	0.01348
Residual	225.48	28	8.05		
Total	486.22	57			

A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed the difference between pre-test and posttest scores of Group 3 for posture. No significant difference between the measures of the dependent variable

was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.05 level of significance. (Refer to Table 10)

Table 10

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Group 3 - Posture

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	32.44	8	4.05		
Within People	92.00	9	10.22		
Treatments	8.00	1	8.00	0.7619	0.40817
Residual	84.00	8	10.50		
Total	124.44	17			

Conclusion. Table 4 illustrates that Groups 1, 2 and 3 demonstrated fewer effective posture changes following treatment. Groups 1 and 2 showed significantly fewer responses. The significance of these results are discussed in Chapter V.

Null Hypothesis #4

Null hypothesis #4 states: There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on gesticulation and non-verbal minimal encouragers (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating") for the experimental groups.

Findings. A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed the difference between pre-test and posttest scores of Groups 1 and 2 for gesticulation and non-verbal minimal encouragers. A significant difference between the measures of the dependent variable was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.05 level of significance which was the criteria for analysis in this study. (Refer to Table 11)

Table 11

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Groups 1 & 2 - Gesticulation and Non-Verbal Minimal Encouragers

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	57.34	28	2.04		
Within People	85.50	29	2.94		
Treatments	38.08	1	38.08	22.4916	0.00006
Residual	47.41	28	1.69		
Total	142.84	57			

A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed the difference between pre-test and posttest scores of Group 3 for gesticulation and non-verbal minimal encouragers. No significant difference between the measures of the dependent variable was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.05 level of significance. (Refer to Table 12)

Table 12

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Group 3 - Gesticulation and Non-verbal Minimal Encouragers

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	5.00	8	0.62		
Within People	3.00	9	0.33		
Treatments	0.88	1	0.88	3.3684	0.10379
Residual	2.11	8	0.26		
Total	8.00	17			

Conclusion. In view of the above findings, null hypothesis #4 is rejected by the results of Groups 1 and 2 (posttest) and supported by the results of Group 3 (delay). There was significant difference between

pre-test and posttest performance in the use of gesticulation and non-verbal minimal encouragers by Groups 1 and 2. Table 4 illustrates an increase in the use of the above skills by Groups 1 and 2.

Null Hypothesis #5

Null hypothesis #5 states: There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on verbal following and minimal verbal encouragers (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating") for the experimental groups.

Findings. A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed the differences between pre-test and posttest scores of Groups 1 and 2 for verbal following and minimal verbal encouragers. No significant difference between measures of the dependent variable was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.05 level of significance which was the criteria for the analysis in this study. (Refer to Table 13)

Table 13

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Groups 1 & 2 - Verbal Following and Minimal Verbal Encouragers

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	194.93	28	6.96		
Within People	211.00	29	7.27		
Treatments	24.89	1	24.89	3.7458	0.06310
Residual	186.10	28	66.46		
Total	405.93	57			

A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed the difference between pre-test and posttest scores of Group 3 for verbal following

and minimal verbal encouragers. No significant difference between the measures of the dependent variable was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.05 level of significance. (Refer to Table 14)

Table 14

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Group 3 - Verbal Following and Minimal Encouragers

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	9.77	8	1.22		
Within People	40.00	9	4.44		
Treatments	8.00	1	8.00	2.0000	0.19502
Residual	32.00	8	4.00		
Total	49.77	17			

Conclusion. In view of the above findings, null hypothesis #5 is supported. However, there was no statistically significant differences between pre-test and posttest performance in the use of these skills by any of the groups in this study.

Null Hypothesis #6

Null hypothesis #6 states: There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on open-ended questions (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating") for the experimental groups.

Findings. A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed the difference between pre-test and posttest scores of Groups 1 and 2 for open-ended questions. A significant difference between the measures of the dependent variable was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.05

level of significance which was the criteria for the analysis in this study. (Refer to Table 15)

Table 15

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Groups 1 and 2 - Open-ended Questions

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	70.34	28	2.51		
Within People	68.00	29	2.34		
Treatments	17.65	1	17.65	9.8192	0.00403
Residual	50.34	28			
Total	138.34	57			

A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed the difference between pre-test and posttest scores of Group 3 for open-ended questions. No significant difference between the measures of the dependent variable was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.05 level of significance. (Refer to Table 16)

Table 16

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Group 3 - Open-ended Questions

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	29.00	8	3.62		
Within People	39.00	9	4.33		
Treatments	0.22	1	0.22	0.0458	0.83582
Residual	38.77	8	4.84		
Total	68.00	17			

Conclusions. In view of the above findings, null hypothesis #6 is rejected by the results of Groups 1 and 2 (posttest) and supported by the results of Group 3 (delay). This indicates there was significant differences between pre-test and posttest performance in the use of open-ended questions by Groups 1 and 2.

Null Hypothesis #7

Null hypothesis #7 states: There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on paraphrasing (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating") for the experimental groups.

Findings. A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed the difference between pre-test and posttest scores of Groups 1 and 2 for paraphrasing. A significant difference between the measures of the dependent variable was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.05 level of significance which was the criteria for analysis in this study. (Refer to Table 17)

Table 17

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Groups 1 & 2 - Paraphrasing

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	71.34	28	2.54		
Within People	223.50	29	7.70		
Treatments	168.98	1	168.98	86.7889	0.00000
Residual	54.51	28	1.94		
Total	294.84	57			

A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed the difference between pre-test and posttest scores of Group 3 for paraphrasing. A significant difference between the measures of the dependent variable was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.01 level of significance. (Refer to Table 18)

Table 18

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Group 3 - Paraphrasing

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	9.00	8	1.12		
Within People	29.00	9	3.22		
Treatments	22.22	1	22.22	26.2295	0.00091
Residual	6.77	8	0.84		
Total	38.00	17			

Conclusion. In view of the above findings, null hypotheses #7 is rejected. Table 4 indicates a marked increase in the use of paraphrasing by Groups 1, 2 and 3 following treatment. There was a significant difference between pre-test and posttest performance in the use of paraphrasing by the three groups in the experiment.

Null Hypotheses #8

Null hypotheses #8 states: There will be no significant difference between the pre-test and posttest scores on teacher talk time (as defined in the section entitled "Description of Variables for Rating") for the experimental groups.

Findings. A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed

the difference between pre-test and posttest scores of Groups 1 and 2 for teacher talk time. A significant difference between the measures of the dependent variable was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.05 level of significance which was the criteria for analysis in this study. (Refer to Table 19)

Table 19

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Groups 1 & 2 - Teacher Talk Time

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	42437.75	28	1515.63		
Within People	59596.00	29	2055.03		
Treatments	40783.50	1	40783.50	60.7010	0.00000
Residual	18812.50	28	671.87		
Total	102033.75	57			

A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures assessed the difference between pre-test and posttest scores of Group 3 for teacher talk time. A significant difference between the measures of the dependent variable was found which exceeded the F ratio for the 0.05 level of significance. (Refer to Table 20)

Table 20

Summary Table for one-way ANOVA - Group 3 - Teacher Talk Time

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability of Significance
Between People	13998.50	8	1749.81		
Within People	31198.00	9	3466.44		
Treatments	21355.56	1	21355.56	17.3579	0.00314
Residual	9842.43	8	1230.30		
Total	45196.50	17			

Conclusion. In view of the above findings, null hypothesis #8 is rejected. The three groups in the experiment demonstrated a decrease in teacher talk time following treatment. Table 4 illustrates that decrease. A statistically significant difference between pre-test and posttest reduction of teacher talk time was indicated for Groups 1, 2 and 3.

Post Hoc Findings

Post hoc examination of the data was conducted using a two-way ANOVA with repeated measures for variables 1 - 3 and 5 - 8. "t" tests were performed on variable 4 due to the absence of variance in pre-test data. These tests dealt with the differences between posttest and delay groups, level of entry skill and interaction effect between these two independent variables. No significant differences were found for the group variable, level of entry skill variable or for the interaction effect in each case, with the exception of posttest data in variable 4. Tables illustrating these statistical analyses can be found in Tables I - XVII in Appendix D.

Chapter V

Summary

The primary purpose of this research was to develop and evaluate the effectiveness of a microcounseling workshop in training teachers in basic communication skills. The microcounseling paradigm (Ivey, 1971) was modified and an instructional communications workshop was developed for use in this study. The workshop was geared towards providing pre-service teachers with basic communication training, specifically listening skills. The paradigm was modified for the classroom setting and differed from the original microcounseling model in that the subjects were trained and evaluated while interacting with a small group of peers rather than in a one-to-one setting.

The overall results, tabulated, analyzed and interpreted in the previous chapter demonstrate that statistically significant differences were obtained in 6 of the 8 designated measures of "listening" for Groups 1 and 2 (pre-test/posttest). However, Group 3 (one week delay) results were significant in only 3 of the 8 null hypotheses tested.

Following treatment, Groups 1 and 2 had fewer eye contact breaks, used fewer closed questions, more open questions and paraphrases and succeeded in the use of non-verbal skills to maintain focus on the students while reducing teacher talk time. Although the level of significance (0.063) obtained when testing null hypothesis #5 (verbal following and minimal encouragers) did not reach the level of significance set for this study (0.05), most subjects did tend to use these

skills more frequently following treatment. Sixty-four percent of the participants increased use of the skills, 18% were unchanged and 18% used the skills less frequently following treatment. The results for Groups 1 and 2 indicate that the modified Ivey paradigm can be effective in teaching basic communication skills in a 12-hour workshop. However, there is some question of the stability of these trends over time.

Results for Group 3 showed fewer eye contact breaks, increased use of paraphrasing and a reduction in teacher talk time. It is interesting to note that these three variables, significant for Group 3, produced the most significant results in Groups 1 and 2. Results of null hypothesis testing for Groups 1 and 2 indicated each of these variables significant at the 0.01 level. It would seem important to discuss these three variables and attempt to draw conclusions as to their incorporation into subject behavior over time.

Eye Contact. During the workshop, the importance of eye contact was continually stressed as the most basic behavior in indicating to a child that the teacher is listening.

During the practice tapings and individual VTR tapings, more effective eye contact was an easily observable characteristic in most subjects. This may have been due in part to the subject's ability to concentrate on maintaining eye contact while still conducting the group discussion.

Other skills are more directly related to subject response to

verbalizations of group members. In using other skills the subject needs to process input cognitively and respond by selecting appropriate verbal and non-verbal behavior. Eye contact with group members needed little selection as it may be viewed as a continuously appropriate behavior and was used much more than any other specific behavior. As a result there was increased practice, more frequent positive reinforcement by the trainer and the group and this may have influenced the outcome. It may be concluded that the eye contact variable was found to be significant over time due to; emphasis on importance during the treatment, ease of identification on the VTR, the continuous nature of the skill and increased use and reinforcement throughout the workshop.

Paraphrasing. Paraphrasing was considered the highest level communications skill presented in the treatment. Ivey et al. (1974) considers it "one of the most important skills of the effective helper" and states that "paraphrasing deserves more emphasis than we usually give it" (p. 32). In keeping with Ivey's position, one segment of the treatment was devoted entirely to the acquisition of effective paraphrasing. Thirty-three percent of the time spent on specific skills was allocated to paraphrasing while other specific skills presented in clusters received approximately 8% of workshop time.

The approach to acquisition of paraphrasing also differed from other skills. Paraphrasing was presented in three stages aimed at facilitating understanding and permitting appropriate VTR demonstration

by individual members. This approach allowed for more group and trainer time to be spent with each individual. A more detailed account of the paraphrasing segment appears in Appendix A.

Trainer emphasis and the disproportionate amount of time devoted to paraphrasing may have affected subject perception of the skill. For instance, during the treatment a number of the subjects identified paraphrasing as a 'counsellor skill' and expressed a desire to become proficient in its use. This higher valuing may have affected the level of acquisition.

Two other skills presented earlier in the workshop were closely related to paraphrasing. Verbal following and verbal minimal encouragers are designed to assist the subject in focusing on the student's ideas and responding appropriately on topic. Paraphrasing is, therefore, an extension of these listening skills, that is, reflection of the essence of the student's verbalization for purposes of understanding or clarification. Therefore, this previous experience with similar skills may have had a "practice effect" which caused a higher rate of skill acquisition in paraphrasing.

It should also be noted that paraphrasing was the final skill presented in the workshop. Following the segment on paraphrasing, Group 1 and 2 subjects recorded their final videotape. This individual VTR required the subject to act as teacher and conduct a discussion session with a group of peers who roleplayed grade 6 students. It should be stressed that these tapes were used for posttest evaluations (Group 3

tapes were recorded 1 week later).

Therefore, it would seem that paraphrasing results may have been influenced by the following: (1) emphasis on importance; (2) time allocated for acquisition of skill; (3) approach to acquisition (stages); (4) subject perception as a 'counsellor skill'; (5) previous experience with related skills; and (6) position in the treatment, ie., the final skills presented.

Teacher Talk Time. Chadbourne's (1975) study showed that teachers talked more often than students and focused on academic material rather than on the students or the class as a whole. She found in her investigation of model microteaching films that the "topic was the prime focus of both teachers and students" while "relatively few subjects of sentences were the student, the teacher or the entire group" (p. 161). In addition, Chadbourne noted that "teachers talked 73.2% of the time" (1975, p. 161). Flanders (1970) found that teacher talk time in the field was usually 68%.

As a result of the studies cited above, the intent of the focus segment was to provide subjects with specific behaviors which would assist them in maintaining a two-way communication system in the classroom. That is, a process in which the student is seen as a contributing and respected part of the communication process (Amidon & Flanders, 1961; Flanders, 1970; Glasser, 1969; Gordon, 1974). A description of the skills presented in the focus segment appears in Appendix A.

The importance and practicality of shortening verbalizations

and/or substituting non-verbal behaviors such as minimal verbal encouragers and gesticulations was emphasized by the trainer throughout the treatment. The effect of this emphasis was easily identified on individual videotapes. Subjects did shorten their verbalizations and did use more non-verbal responses in responding to students in the discussion groups. These skills were responsible in part for the reduction of teacher talk time which, like eye contact, might be considered a continuous behavior. In this study, teacher talk time in the pre-test discussion group was 54% for Groups 1 and 2 and 60% for Group 3. Teacher talk time for all groups in the pre-test was 55%. Following treatment, teacher talk time was 24% for Groups 1 and 2, 29% for Group 3 and 28% for the three groups in the study.

Therefore, it would seem that the following elements: (1) workshop emphasis on research findings; (2) practicality of talking less; (3) continuous behavior; (4) the interdependence of impact of skills; and (5) practice and reinforcement, may have assisted in retention and demonstration of reduced teacher talk time following a one week delay.

It is interesting to note that the three variables which were significant for Groups 1, 2 and 3 were those skills most stressed in each segment in which they were presented. Effective eye contact was emphasized as the most important skill in the attending segment, reduction of teacher talk time was the goal of the focus segment and paraphrasing was the only skill in the final segment.

It should be mentioned that Groups 1, 2 and 3 used fewer posture

changes following treatment. (Refer to Table 4) Subject concentration on demonstrating other communications may have reduced the number of posture changes in the posttest discussion group. Another reason may have been the "in-charge" nature of the pre-test discussions. Possibly, teachers who are controlling a discussion verbally (teacher talk time, closed questions) also need to move more in order to maintain control. It is interesting to note that Group 3 used approximately 1 1/3 fewer posture changes while Groups 1 and 2 used approximately 2 fewer posture changes following treatment. It would seem that after a one week delay subjects tend to return to previous communication behaviors. This contention is supported by the results of this study in which 3 of 8 variables reached statistical significance in the delay group whereas 6 of 8 variables reached significance immediately following treatment.

The results and conclusions of this study suggest that subjects tend to retain those skills which are emphasized, continuous, practical, used more often and those which are highly valued.

Implications of the Study

In summarizing research on microtraining, Ivey and Gluckstern (1976) stated that "studies on teachers in the classroom reveal that very few teachers use microtraining skills". The authors go on to suggest "that training in helping skills would be a useful experience for teachers and other lay personnel" (p. 8). Review of the relevant literature supported the need and usefulness of microtraining skills for teachers. However, it was felt that the skills to be included should be those

considered as basic to effective classroom communications and relevant for the training of pre-service teachers. It is the writer's contention that in the training of counsellors and teachers, most programs assume competence in the basic skills of communications. Beginning counsellors are presumed to be capable of establishing rapport with a client, beginning teachers are assumed to be able to communicate successfully with children. Therefore, most initial training is aimed at higher level skills: counsellors discuss and experiment with various counselling techniques before they have exhibited competency in more basic skills such as establishing rapport; teachers concentrate primarily on acquiring techniques for presenting academic material without first acquiring the skills and behaviors necessary for establishing rapport with their students.

The results of the pre-test tapes in this study and other videotapes taken prior to subsequent workshops support the need for basic communications training for pre-service teachers. Initially they tended to be "teacher centered" (Chadbourne, 1975) when asked to conduct a discussion group with their roleplayed students during the treatment. The discussion groups were generally dominated by the teacher (subjects) who tended to use the discussion primarily to express their own ideas and knowledge about the subject matter and student participation was limited. Subjects appeared to view the discussion group as a "teaching group" and attempted to provide knowledge and values related to the topic.

The study also provided additional information concerning the efficacy of microtraining with groups. Microcounseling had been used to

train counsellors and lay personnel to interact more effectively with individuals in one-to-one situations. The treatment developed for this study used the microtraining paradigm to assist pre-service teachers in acquiring interpersonal skills for use with groups of children. Ivey and Gluckstern (1976) state "while one-to-one microtraining has been the primary focus of early research, more recent evidence is that similar progress can be made through group programs" (p. 8). It is felt that the results of this research in peer microtraining support the use of the Ivey paradigm with groups of pre-service teachers.

Limitations and Delimitations of this Investigation

Caution should be exercised in interpreting the findings in this study in view of it's limitations.

The subject sample was drawn from one undergraduate class in the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta, which may have had a biasing effect on the results. As the majority of education students enroll in this course, the sample was considered to be a reasonable, representative cross-section of the pre-service teacher population.

The procedure for assignment to group was accomplished through random assignment and subject preference. This resulted in two female dominant groups and one male dominant group. Therefore, due to the make-up of each group, no attempt was made to examine the effect of sex difference within the data.

Another factor which may be considered a limitation is the trainer.

First, the trainer was the author of the workshop and had a vested interest in it's success. Second, in a study of this kind the personality and level of enthusiasm of the workshop leader is always a variable. Third, the trainer was also the instructor for the course, of which the workshop was a non-graded component. This may have affected student motivation as well as the trainer/trainee relationship within the workshop setting. By providing a detailed trainer's handbook, it was hoped that trainer variability would be minimized (Appendix C).

A further limitation is the loss of subject data due to equipment malfunction and "VTR person" inexperience. During the planning of this study, consideration was given to hiring trained technicians, but this was considered to be too costly; therefore, prior to the workshop one subject in each micro-group was trained in VTR operation. While the loss of subject data was considerable, the losses were random and the residual N was sufficient for statistical analysis.

A final consideration was the artificial nature of the setting in which the skills were practiced and demonstrated. Subjects acted as teachers in discussion groups in which peers roleplayed elementary school students. The change from roleplaying student to classroom teacher may have an effect upon the level of co-operation. For instance, a roleplaying peer who has not yet assumed the role of teacher may co-operate more than the roleplaying peer who has already completed the teacher role. Therefore, the level of co-operation received from roleplaying students may have been higher at the beginning and lower at the end of the taping

session. These varying levels of co-operation may have affected the demonstration of the skills by the subjects in the study. Furthermore, the purpose of this study was to measure the effectiveness of the micro-training model on subject skill performance following treatment and consequently, the generalizability of the skills to the classroom was not dealt with directly.

Revisions to Workshop

A number of changes have been made to the workshop which was used as the treatment in this study. These changes were influenced by responses on critique sheets completed by each workshop participant, the results of null hypothesis testing and through trainer experience and reflection.

The revised workshop which appears as Appendix B differs from the workshop handout used in the study. The revised workshop is divided into four 3-hour sessions rather than the two 6-hour sessions in the original workshop. A majority of the participants felt they had to "cram it" during that time. While the workshop approach is expected to be a dynamic one, it was felt that shorter workshop meetings might be more effective. By amending the schedule in this manner, one skill cluster could be presented at a time and this would allow participants to process and use the newly acquired skills outside the workshop setting. This is in keeping with the "do", "use", "teach" (Ivey, 1971) concept basic to the microcounseling program. Ivey et al. states "If trainees have the opportunity to practice their learned behavior in work or home settings,

the behavior will be maintained. However, if no practice on learned skills occurs, the abilities may be lost." (1976, p. 8).

Group roles have been adjusted in order that the micro-group might function more autonomously. Some changes have been made in the text of the handout, particularly in reference to the emphasis on use in the field. Also, the "Behavior Chart Count and Rating Scale" and the "Five Point Rating Scale" (Appendix A, pp. 23-26) have been replaced with the "Communications Behavior Chart" (Appendix B, p. 25). Appendix C is a handbook which provides trainers with the requisite information for organizing and leading the revised workshop.

The results of null hypothesis testing in which only 3 of 8 dependent variables were significant for subjects one week after treatment also seems to support shorter meetings (for example, 3 hours instead of 6-hour sessions) and more time for processing and practicing these skills. Therefore, it was decided to conduct further workshops in four sessions at least one week apart while stressing the importance of using the skills daily in the interim. Use of skills was indeed stressed in the original workshop, however, the time between sessions did not allow for participant experimentation in a variety of situations.

Hemmer (1975) stated that some of the students in her study experienced difficulty in understanding the importance of communication and facilitative helping skills. Some expressed anger at spending time on communication skills rather than learning approaches to discipline and student behavior management. Subjective reaction of some students

in this study was similar to those encountered by Hemmer.

These students questioned the application of specific skills to the "real classroom". Subsequent workshops also were at times marked by what might be considered an almost predictable "but how does it help me in teaching 28 kids to get their work done?". This premature questioning has been successfully dealt with by initially distinguishing between social conversation and professional communication. Also, the rationale for the workshop has been given more emphasis in it's revised form.

Teachers are professional communicators. As such, they need to develop more effective use of communication skills in the classroom. The skills are not presented as new ideas but as more effective means of utilizing old skills and participants are urged to use them individually before expecting them to become part of their behavior response system. As the participants of the workshop realize more effective communication, it becomes less obligatory to discuss rationale and the relevance of these skills for the field.

A behavior chart was used by the participants as a teaching aid to provide feedback for the individual videotape presentations. Individual tapes were viewed and rated while group members observed. This chart has been replaced with a new Behavioral Chart which is more objective and provides for only a count of behaviors and teacher talk time estimates. The revised Behavior Chart appears in Appendix B. The use of this teaching aid was incorporated in the workshop in order

to provide for "active responding". Active, as opposed to passive, responding to VTR observation increases acquisition, retention and transfer of information (Gropper, 1967).

The "do", "use", "teach" concept has been emphasized more in the revised workshop. The current schedule should increase use and allow for more processing time. Trainees are also being encouraged to teach the skills to the students in their classrooms.

Another revision which is being considered is the use of follow up videotapes as part of the workshop program. Blank videotapes would be circulated to trainees who have completed the workshop and they would then be required to videotape a 5-minute discussion group with students in their class and forward it to the next workshop member. The tape would be returned to the trainer and additional feedback would be given. This approach may assist in the use and retention of the skills acquired during the workshop.

Although at least one member in each group in the workshop received training in VTR operation prior to this study, many difficulties arose. Unacceptable video or audio quality was a constant problem. In order to correct this difficulty, the checking and re-checking of completed tapes was stressed. It became extremely important that all VTR equipment be pre-checked and back-up units be arranged for. The impact and immediacy of television (Tyler, 1974) was an important ingredient in the workshop. Participants enjoyed seeing themselves on TV, malfunctioning equipment frustrated that need.

Conclusion

This study has demonstrated the value of microtraining in providing pre-service teachers with more effective listening skills. The workshop which was developed as the treatment for this study stressed the role of the classroom teacher as a professional communicator. The revised workshop (Appendix B) and the Trainers Manual (Appendix C) are designed for use with inservice teachers in the field or with pre-service teachers as part of a classroom communications course. The basic skills taught using Ivey's "do", "use", "teach" model were not presented as new, but as old behaviors made more effective. Training in and demonstration of specific communication skills could be useful in the selection of candidates for teacher training.

Further research is needed to determine the factors influencing subject retention of specific communication skills over time. Investigation into the effectiveness of the microcounseling model in training elementary and high school students may be of benefit. The possibility exists that females responded more favorably to the workshop, therefore, the differential effect of sex needs to be investigated. For instance, how would training in more effective listening skills affect student self-image, classroom participation and interest in achievement?

Effective classroom communications provide a supportive environment for learning, allowing students to acquire proficiency in oral language flowing out of a secure experiential base. The findings of this study suggest a need for teacher training in communication skills which

is based upon competency. The professionally communicating teacher can effectively establish a "two-way" system in her classroom. This system recognizes the student as a feeling as well as a thinking being. It is important that he be heard in both.

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Appendix A

Original Handbook

Workshop Handbook

Developing More Effective Classroom Communication Skills

Ed Franzoni

University of Alberta

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INTRODUCTION

Traditional teacher education has been primarily oriented towards the cognitive with limited emphasis on affect. Teachers educated in this cognitive environment apply these learned principles in their teaching. The result has been an almost exclusive emphasis on ability and achievement in our schools. Recently, it has been recognized that a feeling as well as a thinking child come to school and he must be dealt with as a whole person.

Gordon (1974) and others feel that the primary reason for problems in the classroom is the dysfunctional communication patterns between the teacher and the class. Therefore, it would seem that more effective classroom communications are needed to provide for:

1. increased student understanding of subject material,
2. better classroom management,
3. improved student self-concept,
4. smooth transition into new affective education programs.

Two-way communication facilitates recognition of individual respect. Both the student and the teacher are thinking and feeling individuals, a clear and "caring" communication pattern can facilitate recognition of these traits and maintain individual responsibility and reduce dependent behavior.

Effective classroom communication makes smooth the preservice teachers' transition from student to classroom professional; higher levels of communication skills for the inservice professional

educator allows for more personal satisfaction and personal relevance in an always changing, sometimes confusing milieu, the classroom.

WORKSHOP - LISTENING SKILLS

The purpose of this communication workshop is to provide you with specific listening skills which will increase your effectiveness as a classroom teacher. Listening skills are seen as forming the necessary base from which more complex and sophisticated skills may be acquired. The three skills selected to form this necessary base are: attending, focus, and paraphrasing. These skills will be acquired using a microtraining approach. This approach provides for each skill to be acquired in small (micro) components which are later demonstrated as a composite skill. For example, the skill of basic attending will be divided into the following components:

1. eye contact,
2. posture,
3. gesticulation,
4. verbal following.

Each of these components will be acquired singularly, practiced and then demonstrated by you. After each of these individual components has been satisfactorily demonstrated, you will then demonstrate their use on videotape as the composite skill, attending. Acquisition of these skills will follow a modified format designed by Allen Ivey (1971):

1. Brief lecture, handout.
2. Effective modeling tape (Behavior count charting).
3. Discussion, group assignment.

4. Dyad roleplaying, component behavior.

5. Group videotaping, component behavior, composite skills.

6. Behavior count charting.

7. Discussion.

(This process may be repeated if skill acquisition is incomplete.)

Past workshops have proven the effectiveness of this format. While at times it may seem a bit structured and perhaps moving at a "hectic" pace, it is a vehicle which in short time will increase your communication effectiveness and might even be fun, along the way.

COMMUNICATION WORKSHOP

Developing Effective Listening Skills

Schedule

Day One

9:00 a.m.	Welcome
9:15 a.m.	Introduction to Videotape Recording (VTR) Equipment Operation, monitoring, etc.
9:45 a.m.	Introduction to Ivey format
10:00 a.m.	Coffee Break
10:15 a.m.	Assignment to groups Group effectiveness Individual roles Procedure
10:30 a.m.	Videotaping session - Ineffective attending behavior - Group Individual group members tape 5-minute segment which illustrates ineffective attending.
11:30 a.m.	Discussion - Ineffective attending
12:00 noon	Lunch Break
12:30 p.m.	Brief Lecture, handout - effective attending
12:45 p.m.	Videotape presentation - Effective attending behavior Demonstration Tape
1:00 p.m.	Behavior count charting
1:15 p.m.	Discussion - effective attending - Trainer roleplaying and clarification
1:30 p.m.	Dyad - roleplaying practice effective attending - component behavior Each component skill - practiced as a separate and specific behavior.
2:00 p.m.	Coffee Break

Day One (continued)

2:15 p.m.	Videotaping session - Group - Effective attending - composite - Behavior count charting - successful acquisition of skill by all group members
3:45 p.m.	Feedback - evaluation - use skills learned and report on them at next meeting
4:00 p.m.	See you tomorrow

Day Two

9:00 a.m.	Welcome - Brief review
9:15 a.m.	Brief lecture, handout - Focus
9:30 a.m.	Videotape presentation - Focus Demonstration tape
9:45 a.m.	Dyad - Role play - practice components of focusing Each component skill - practiced as a separate and specific behavior
10:15 a.m.	Coffee Break
10:30 a.m.	Videotape session - Group - Focusing - Behavior count charting - Successful acquisition of composite skill by all group members
12:00 noon	Lunch Break
12:30 p.m.	Brief lecture, handout - Paraphrasing
12:45 p.m.	Videotape presentation - Paraphrasing
1:00 p.m.	Dyad - Roleplaying - practice paraphrasing - component behaviors - stage approach
1:30 p.m.	Videotape session - group - effective paraphrasing - composite skill - Behavior count charting
2:15 p.m.	Coffee Break
2:30 p.m.	Discussion, Final videotape presentation - Attending, Focus, Paraphrasing

Day Two (continued)

2:45 p.m.	Videotaping session - Individual videotaping of session demonstrating effective listening skills "Putting it all together"
3:45 p.m.	Final Discussion - Commitment to use listening skills acquired in workshop at least once a day
4:00 p.m.	So long

GROUPS AND GROUP ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

The workshop will be divided into small groups for practice and preparation of individual videotape demonstrations. You will remain in the same group throughout the workshop. The small group provides for maximum individual VTR time as well as immediate feedback from familiar group members. It is important that the group functions smoothly and utilizes its time efficiently. Roles and responsibilities of each of the group members are defined on the following pages. The group should decide on staffing these roles at the beginning of each session (Daily - 9:00 a.m. and 12:00 p.m.). It is recommended that roles are changed, however, if a group decides against changing roles that decision will be accepted.

Prior to each session read over the information pertinent to your role. If you have any questions or are experiencing material or equipment difficulties contact the trainer as soon as possible.

Fun and smiling are acceptable in your group!

Group Leader Responsibilities

1. Assign members to roles.
2. Insure time is apportioned for total group involvement.
3. Follow schedule.
4. Insure specific behaviors required for segment are demonstrated. (Use of prompt cards or blackboards.)
5. Lead discussion of individual tapes.
6. Liaison with trainer.
7. Check VTR and tape for functionability.
8. Insure code numbers and 15" delay precede individual taping.

Teacher Responsibilities

1. Assume role of classroom teacher.
2. Select brief academic topic for group to discuss in VTR taping. Introduce and lead group discussion on selected topic in an appropriate manner.
3. Indicate to workshop members - 6th grade level for role play.
4. Insure personal code number precedes individual taping.

Camera Person Responsibilities

1. Bring equipment to group room and prepare for videotaping prior to start of workshop.

2. Set prescribed camera angle (only teacher appears on monitor).

3. Check equipment operation prior to each individual VTR taping.

4. Monitor equipment during VTR taping.

5. Act as VTR liaison person with trainer.

6. Insure personal code number precedes individual taping.

Roleplaying Members (students) Responsibilities

1. Assume role of grade level student as indicated by teacher.

2. Role play, ie., state questions, comments or observations which you feel are grade level appropriate.

3. Participate and assist teacher in demonstrating specific communication skills.

ATTENDING BEHAVIOR HANDOUT

Segment 1

The central skill of listening is attending to the student. Most of us would say, "I attend to what my students are saying. Boy! What kind of a teacher would I be if I didn't have that kind of basic rather simple skill"! However, in many cases this rather "simple skill" is missing or not being used effectively. There are four dimensions to basic attending.

1. Eye contact. A comfortable looking at the student you're talking to. Not a "stare" but a comfortable interested look which tells the student that you are interested in his ideas, questions or comments. Eye contact "breaks" can sometimes be helpful clues as to where the student or the teacher is at. For example, if Ms. Pritchard breaks eye contact each time Bob talks negatively about Mr. Hummer (another teacher in their school), Bob may become reticent to discuss his problem. This may end the communication even though Ms. Pritchard is interested and concerned about Bob's problem.

You will observe eye contact breaks in the videotape presentations, roleplaying and individual VTR demonstrations. It might be fun to stop the VTR or roleplay at an eye contact break and discuss the implications of these breaks.

Eye contact is the key ingredient to initial communication. The eyes can reveal love, hate, caring, or scorn. The phrase "the eyes have it" may help you to remember their importance in communications.

2. The second attending component is posture. It is important to develop your own style, generally a slight forward trunk lean and a relaxed easy posture will be effective. Distance between the student and teacher is another aspect of posture. Distance will be influenced by the specific circumstances of the interaction.

For example: Teacher might come very close and put her arm around a student who is experiencing great hurt. While a student's response to a discussion question may call for no change in distance.

The key question to be answered in distance; is it "comfortable"? Comfortable for you and comfortable for the students. It might be interesting for you to experiment with distances in your dyads and groups. You will find that comfortable distance will vary a great deal, even in a small group. Work towards establishing a distance which is generally acceptable for you and your group members in different situations.

3. Appropriate gesticulations. Appropriate gesticulations indicate interest and an understanding of the student's question, idea or observation. Frowns, tense mouth or chin, clenched fists or smiles, brightened eyes or arm and hand movement can have varying effects on a communication.

During the workshop observe other group members' use of gesticulation. Try out a new gesture, if you feel you are using too many, make a concerted effort to reduce distracting gestures. Gestures should aid in the effective flow of communication. The two extremes, no gestures at all (non-verbal stiffness) or a constant

stream of gestures (gesticulatory overkill) both inhibit good listening. Comfortable, appropriate gestures are a very natural component of listening, work towards their effective utilization.

4. Verbal following. Verbal following is responding to what a student has said in a natural way. Stay with what has already been said, there is no reason to introduce a new topic. Do not topic jump or interrupt. There is no need to go into your own head to think of what to say. The student has already told you. If you get lost and cannot think of anything to say, simply hesitate a moment and think of something said earlier that interested you. Go back and make a comment or ask a question about that topic. You are still attending.

There is no need to talk about yourself or give answers when you attend to a student. Your main responsibility as a teacher who listens, is to assist students in finding their own answers. You will be surprised how able students are to do this if you are willing to follow verbally.

After completion of this segment of the workshop you should have mastered the following competencies:

1. Ability to define attending behavior.

2. Ability to count and rate attending behavior in roleplaying and videotapes.

3. Ability to demonstrate the skills of attending yourself in a demonstration tape.

4. Commitment and ability to use attending behaviors in settings beyond the workshop.

FOCUS HANDOUT

Segment 2

Focus was briefly dealt with in the segment on attending behavior. Focus can be defined as that act on the part of the teacher which insures that the student perceives interest and concern for his question, comment, observation or problem. The questions or encouragers used by the teacher center around the concerns of the student rather than the teacher. Questions should be designed to help the student clarify her/his problem or idea, rather than provide information for the teacher. (This is not to say that teachers are not to ask for information but rather that the student is given sufficient time and encouragement to answer as completely as is possible first).

The component skills of focus (on the student) are:

1. Open-ended questions. These questions tend to give more room for student exploration. They generally begin with what, how, and could. They tend to focus on the student, show interest and request more information and further depth. Open questions move the communication process in the direction which is indicated by the student. Open questions "open up" the student.

2. Closed questions. Closed questions often emphasize factual content as opposed to eliciting more of the students' feelings or ideas. Closed questions generally demonstrate a lack of interest in what the student has to say. Closed questions can usually be answered in a few words or with a yes or no. Closed questions shut

down the communication and cause the teacher the dilemma of "where do I go from here?".

Example:

T "Are you angry at Mr. Hummer?"

S "Yes."

T "Why?"

S "Because."

T "Why, because?"

S "I don't know!."

(Where does she go from here?)

The following open-ended questions are likely to elicit more complete responses.

"What are some of the problems you're having with Mr. Hummer?"

"How are things on the hockey team?"

"Could you tell me a bit more about your fight with Alex Karras?" (if you can still talk).

Open-ended questions help begin a communication, particularly a student problem or concern. They help get the student to elaborate on his comment or answer in a discussion.

In your roleplaying practice sessions you will have the opportunity to practice both open and closed questions. The roleplaying experience will dramatically point out the differences and will probably cause you to use closed questions only when specific information is urgently needed for you to continue to "focus" on the student's concern

or idea. However, remember if you do get stuck and don't know what to say, mention something which was of interest earlier in the meeting or recapitulate. Of course, there is another alternative, pause and say nothing. (We'll discuss that briefly later.)

3. Minimal encouragers. Minimal encouragers, both verbal and non-verbal are used to help direct and focus the interaction and "keep students talking".

Verbal minimal encouragers are brief utterances which show you have tuned in with the student. Here are some useful examples:

1. "Oh?", "So?", "Then?", "And?", "Wow!"

2. The repetition of one or two key words.

Example:

S "I think Dr. Labercane is a really neat guy."

T "Neat guy!"

3. "Tell me more."

4. "Umm-humm", "uh-huh".

5. Simple statement of student's last words.

Non-verbal minimal encouragers are basic elaborations of the body language dimensions of attending behavior: basically good attending (discussed earlier) coupled with head nods, moving the body forward with a warm gesture at an appropriate moment is helpful. The rolling of the hands up along the body and out toward the student means "go on, I'm interested and concerned".

Generally, verbal and non-verbal encouragers are used

together. Practice their use in your dyads and groups and you'll see that a minimal intervention is far more facilitative than a lot of verbiage.

The final point under focus is reduction of teacher talk time. Research has indicated that when we talk it is usually about our ideas, our comments or our solutions to problems. Studies show that the level of effective communications rises as teacher talk time decreases. Therefore, during this workshop "reduction of teacher talk time will be stressed". Remember the less you talk the more time the student has to clarify his ideas or solve his own problem. Try some "silence". (Anyway teachers need a break, who says they have to talk so much?)

After completion of this segment of the workshop you should have mastered the following competencies:

1. Ability to define the difference between open and closed questions.

2. Ability to count and rate the different types of questions observed in a helping interview.

3. Ability to demonstrate the skills of question asking in an interview.

4. Ability to demonstrate the use of minimal encouragers in an interview.

5. Demonstrate reduction of talk time and use of "silence" as a minimal encourager.

PARAPHRASING HANDOUT

Segment 3

Paraphrasing is crucial in attempting to bridge the interpersonal gap. (1) It increases the accuracy of communication, and thus the degree of mutual or shared understanding. (2) The act of paraphrasing itself conveys feeling ... your interest in the other, your concern to see how he views things.

Learning to Paraphrase

People sometimes think of paraphrasing as merely putting the other person's ideas in another way. They try to say the same thing with different words. Such word-swapping may result merely in the illusion of mutual understanding.

Effective paraphrasing is not a trick or a verbal gimmick. It comes from an attitude, a desire to know what the other means. And to satisfy this desire you reveal the meaning his comment had for you so that the other can check whether it matches the meaning he intended to convey.

The Problem

Tell somebody your phone number and he will usually repeat it to make sure he heard it correctly. However, if you make a complicated statement, most people will express agreement or disagreement without trying to insure that they are responding to what you intended. Most people seem to assume that what they understand from a statement is what the other intended.

How do you check to make sure that you understand another person's ideas, information or suggestions as he intended them? How do you know that his remark means the same to you as it does to him?

Of course, you can get the other person to clarify his remark by asking, "What do you mean?" or, "Tell me more." or by saying, "I don't understand.". However, after he has elaborated, you still face the same question. "Am I understanding his idea as he intended it to be understood?" Your feeling of certainty is no evidence that you do in fact understand.

The Skill

If you state in your own way what his remark conveys to you, the other can begin to determine whether his message is coming through as he intended. Then, if he thinks you misunderstand, he can speak directly to the specific misunderstanding you have revealed. The term "paraphrase" can be used for any means of showing the other person what his idea or suggestion means to you.

Paraphrasing then is any way of revealing your understanding of the other person's comment in order to test your understanding.

An additional benefit of paraphrasing is that it lets the other know that you are interested in him. It is evidence that you do want to understand what he means.

If you can satisfy the other that you really do understand his point, he will probably be more willing to attempt to understand your views.

Stage Learning - Paraphrasing

Stages: In Roleplaying - Dyad

1. Repeat verbatim - what student said. (parrot)
2. Select main ideas and exact words from student's statement and repeat to student.
3. Select essence words (your own or student's) or ideas which most accurately describe what the student's ideas mean to you.

This process should provide you with practice which will aid in acquiring the skill of paraphrasing in a short period of time. Remember, this is a stage process for arriving at Stage 3, effective paraphrasing; Stages 1 and 2 are for initial practice only.

Effective paraphrasing lends clarity to the student's statement for the teacher and allows the student to review teacher feedback (the paraphrase) and clarify his ideas for himself as well as the teacher. If a student's statements or ideas remain his responsibility, then decision-making and problem-solving are made easier.

Remember - paraphrasing is not a gimmick - it is an extremely effective method for insuring accurate listening and establishing care and concern for a student. Skillful paraphrasing is a difficult task.

After completion of this final segment of the workshop, you should have mastered the following competencies:

1. The ability to define the skill of paraphrasing.
2. The ability to count and rate paraphrases.
3. The ability to demonstrate the skills of paraphrases in group and VTR.

FIVE POINT RATING SCALE

This scale is provided for your use in rating videotaped models, videotapes of group members and your own VTR demonstration of specific listening skills. The scale is to be used as a "focusing in" vehicle for each skill rather than a qualitative measure of individual performance. This "focusing in" process will provide for skill clarification, recognition of individual strength and weakness as well as investigation and processing of nuances of communication which lead to a facilitative interaction. The levels of facilitation are as follows:

1. Destructive	Use of behavior significantly hinders communication.
2. Lacks facilitative skill	Use of behavior detracts from communication. (Normal conversation is usual at this level.)
3. Minimally facilitative	Use of behavior slightly adds to communication.
4. Facilitative	Use of behavior adds to and enriches communication.
5. Maximally facilitative	Use of behavior significantly adds to and enriches communication.

ATTENDING

BEHAVIORAL COUNT CHART AND RATING

ADAPTED FOR GROUP (IVEY, 1976)

	Number of Ineffective Applications	Number of Effective Applications	Rating	Comments
Eye Contact				
Gesticulation				
Posture				
Verbal Following				

During the observation, record the number of specific behaviors exhibited for each component skill that is, in your judgment, effective or ineffective. Immediately after completion of the observation, rate each component skill using the five point scale provided on page 23.

FOCUS

BEHAVIORAL COUNT CHART AND RATING

ADAPTED FOR GROUP (IVEY, 1976)

	Number of Ineffective Applications	Number of Effective Applications	Rating	Comments
Open Questions				
Closed Questions				
Verbal minimal encouragers				
Non-verbal minimal encouragers				
Estimated % of teacher talk time				

During the observation, record the number of specific behaviors exhibited for each component skill, that is in your judgment effective or ineffective. Immediately after completion of the observation, rate each component skill using the five point scale provided on page 23. Also estimate the % of teacher talk time, rate and comment upon it.

PARAPHRASING

BEHAVIORAL COUNT CHART AND RATING

ADAPTED FOR GROUP (IVEY, 1976)

	Number of Ineffective Applications	Number of Effective Applications	Comments
Paraphrase			
Use of essence words			
Restatement			

Appendix B

Revised Handbook

Handbook

Microtraining in Classroom Communications:

Developing More Effective Listening Skills

Ed Franzoni

University of Alberta

INTRODUCTION

Traditional teacher education has been primarily oriented towards the cognitive with little emphasis on affect. Teachers educated in this cognitive environment apply these learned principles in their teaching. The result has been an almost exclusive emphasis on ability and achievement in our schools. Recently, it has been recognized that a feeling as well as a thinking child comes to school, and he must be dealt with as a whole person.

Gordon (1974) and others feel that the primary reason for problems in the classroom is the dysfunctional communication patterns between the teacher and the class. Therefore, it would seem that more effective classroom communications are needed to provide for:

1. increased student understanding of subject material,
2. better classroom management,
3. improved student self-concept,
4. smooth transition into new affective education programs.

Two-way communication facilitates recognition of individual respect. Both the student and the teacher are thinking and feeling individuals, a clear and "caring" communication pattern can facilitate recognition of these traits and maintain individual responsibility and reduce dependent behavior.

Teachers are professional communicators. This workshop will stress your role as a professional and will allow time for in-class experimentation as well as use of the skills in the field. Upon

completion of "doing" and "using" the skills, you decide which are relevant and valuable for you. It will then be natural that you "teach" these skills to others, possibly the students in your classroom.

The "do", "use", "teach" approach (Ivey, 1971) is the underlying rationale for acquisition of the skills offered in this workshop.

Effective classroom communication makes smooth the pre-service teachers' transition from student to classroom professional; higher levels of communication skills for the inservice professional educator allows for more personal satisfaction and personal relevance in an always changing, sometimes confusing milieu, the classroom.

WORKSHOP - LISTENING SKILLS

The purpose of this communication workshop is to provide you with specific listening skills which will increase your effectiveness as a professional communicator. Listening skills are seen as forming the necessary base from which more complex and sophisticated skills may be acquired. The three skills selected to form this necessary base are: attending, focus and paraphrasing. These skills will be acquired using a microtraining approach. This approach provides for each skill to be acquired in small (micro) components which are later demonstrated as a composite skill. For example, the skill of basic attending will be divided into the following components:

1. eye contact,
2. posture,
3. gesticulation,
4. verbal following.

Each of these components will be acquired singularly, practiced and then demonstrated by you. After each of these individual components has been satisfactorily demonstrated, you will then demonstrate their use on videotape as the composite skill, attending. Acquisition of these skills will follow a modified format designed by Allen Ivey (1971):

1. Brief lecture, handout.
2. Effective modeling tape (Behavior count charting).
3. Discussion, micro-group assignment.
4. Dyad roleplaying, component behavior.

5. Micro-group videotaping, component behavior, composite skills.

6. Behavior count charting.

7. Discussion.

(This process may be repeated if skill acquisition is incomplete).

Past workshops have proven the effectiveness of this format. While at times it may seem a bit structured and perhaps moving at a "hectic" pace, it is a vehicle which in short time will increase your communication effectiveness and might even be fun, along the way.

Session One

Minutes

Start	VTR Pickup
30	Welcome
60	Introduction to Videotape Recording, (VTR) Equipment Operation, monitoring, etc.
75	Videotaping Session of Micro-Group Discussion. 3-minute VTR for each individual. Topics provided.
120	Introduction to Ivey's Microtraining Paradigm. Lecture videotape.
135	Brief lecture, handout - effective attending.
150	Lecture and modeling tape - effective attending.
170	Feedback and Discussion
180	Good Nite Class - (Try using skills presented)

Notes:

Session Two

Minutes	
Start	Welcome
15	Behavior Count Charting
30	Discussion - effective attending. Trainer roleplay and clarification.
45	Dyad Roleplaying - practice of effective attending component. Each component skill practiced as a separate and specific behavior.
75	Videotaping Session. 3-minute tape. Micro-group discussion. Demonstration of effective attending - behavior count charting - successful attending skill acquisition by all micro-group members.
120	Brief lecture, handout - Focus
135	Lecture and modeling tape - Focus
160	Dyad Roleplay - practice components of focus.
200	Feedback and evaluation
210	See you next week - (Use the skills)

Notes:

Session Three

Minutes

Start	Welcome - brief review - Focus
15	Videotape Session - Focus. Micro-group behavior chart counting - successful acquisition of composite skill by all micro-group members.
75	Brief lecture, handout - Paraphrasing
90	Lecture and modeling tape - Paraphrasing
105	Dyad Roleplaying - practice paraphrasing - component behaviors - stage approach.
140	Feedback evaluation
150	Over-use skills with real people!

Notes:

Session Four

Minutes

Start	Welcome and review
15	Videotape session - micro-group - effective paraphrasing - composite skill - behavior count charting.
60	Discussion, final videotape presentation - Attending, Focus, Paraphrasing.
75	Videotaping session - Individual videotaping of session demonstrating effective listening skills. "Putting it all together" (3-minute tape)
120	Final Discussion - Commitment to use listening skills acquired in workshop at least once a day.
180	So long

Notes:

MICRO-GROUPS AND MICRO-GROUP ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

The workshop will be divided into small micro-groups for practice and preparation of individual videotape demonstrations. You will remain in the same micro-group throughout the workshop. The small micro-group provides for maximum individual VTR time as well as immediate feedback from familiar micro-group members. It is important that the micro-group functions smoothly and utilizes its time effeciently. Roles and responsibilities of each of the micro-group members are defined on the following pages. The micro-group should decide on staffing these roles at the beginning of each session. It is recommended that roles are changed, however, if a micro-group decides against changing roles that decision will be accepted.

Prior to each session read over the information pertinent to your role. If you have any questions or are experiencing material or equipment difficulties, contact the trainer as soon as possible.

Fun and smiling are acceptable in your micro-group!

Director (like in the movies) - Responsibilities

1. Assign members to roles.
2. Check with VTR person and tape for functionability.
3. Insure time is apportioned for total micro-group involvement.
4. Follow schedule.
5. Provide coffee break.
6. Liaison with trainer.
7. Insure specific behaviors required for segment are demonstrated.

   (Use of prompt cards or blackboards.)
8. Facilitate discussion following VTR viewing.
9. Behavior chart counting for each individual.
10. Insure code number and 15" delay precede individual taping.
11. Return individual VTR's to trainer following session.
12. Fun!

Teacher Responsibilities

1. Assume role of classroom teacher.
2. Select brief general topic for micro-group to discuss in VTR taping. Introduce and lead micro-group discussion on selected topic in an appropriate manner.
3. Indicate to workshop members - grade level for role play.
4. Insure personal code number precedes individual taping.
5. Attempt to demonstrate requisite number of skills for exercise.
6. It's "O.K." if some behaviors seem unnatural or contrived, try them anyway.

VTR Person Responsibilities

1. Bring equipment to micro-group room and prepare for videotaping prior to start of workshop.
2. Set prescribed camera angle (only teacher appears on monitor).
3. Teach basic VTR operation to micro-group members.
4. Check equipment operation prior to each individual VTR taping.
5. Monitor equipment during VTR taping.
6. Check audio and video quality following each individual VTR taping.
7. Act as VTR liaison person with trainer.
8. Insure personal code number precedes individual taping.
9. Immediately contact VTR technician if equipment malfunctions.

Roleplaying Members (actors) Responsibilities

1. Assume role of grade level student as indicated by teacher.
2. Role play, ie., state questions, comments or observations which you feel are grade level appropriate.
3. Participate and assist teacher in demonstrating specific communication skills.
4. Two or three statement comments are sufficient, don't ramble on!
5. Speak to the teacher not other micro-group members, this facilitates skill demonstration.

ATTENDING BEHAVIOR HANDOUT

Segment 1

The central skill of listening is attending to the student. Most of us would say, "I attend to what my students are saying. Boy! What kind of a teacher would I be if I didn't have that kind of basic rather simple skill"! However, in many cases this rather "simple skill" is missing or not being used effectively. There are four dimensions to basic attending:

1. Eye contact. A comfortable looking at the student you're talking to. Not a "stare" but a comfortable interested look which tells the student that you are interested in his ideas, questions or comments. Eye contact "breaks" can sometimes be helpful clues as to where the student or the teacher is at. For example, if Ms. Pritchard breaks eye contact each time Bob talks negatively about Mr. Hummer (another teacher in their school), Bob may become reticent to discuss his problem. This may end the communication even though Ms. Pritchard is interested and concerned about Bob's problem.

You will observe eye contact breaks in the videotape presentations, roleplaying and individual VTR demonstrations. It might be fun to stop the VTR or roleplay at an eye contact break and discuss the implications of these breaks.

Eye contact is the key ingredient to initial communication. The eyes can reveal love, hate, caring or scorn. The phrase "the eyes have it" may help you to remember their importance in communications.

2. The second attending component is posture. It is important to develop your own style, generally a slight forward trunk lean and a relaxed easy posture will be effective. Distance between the student and teacher is another aspect of posture. Distance will be influenced by the specific circumstances of the interaction.

For example: Teacher might come very close and put her arm around a student who is experiencing great hurt. While a student's response to a discussion question may call for little change in distance.

The key question to be answered in distance; is it "comfortable"? Comfortable for you and comfortable for the students. It might be interesting for you to experiment with distances in your dyads and micro-groups. You will find that comfortable distance will vary a great deal even in a small micro-group. Work towards establishing a distance which is generally acceptable for you and your micro-group members in different situations.

3. Appropriate gesticulations. Appropriate gesticulations indicate interest and an understanding of the student's question, idea or observation. Frowns, tense mouth or chin, clenched fists or smiles, brightened eyes or arm and hand movement can have varying effects on a communication.

During the workshop observe other micro-group members' use of gesticulation. Try out a new gesture, if you feel you are using too many, make a concerted effort to reduce distracting gestures. Gestures should aid in the effective flow of communication. The two

extremes, no gestures at all (non-verbal stiffness) or a constant stream of gestures (gesticulatory overkill) both inhibit good listening. Comfortable, appropriate gestures are a very natural component of listening, work towards their effective utilization.

4. Verbal following. Verbal following is responding to what a student has said in a natural way. Stay with what has already been said, there is no reason to introduce a new topic. Do not topic jump or interrupt. There is no need to go into your own head to think of what to say. The student has already told you. If you get lost and cannot think of anything to say, simply hesitate a moment and think of something said earlier that interested you. Go back and make a comment or ask a question about that topic. You are still attending.

There is no need to talk about yourself or give answers when you attend to a student. Your main responsibility as a teacher who listens, is to assist students in finding their own answers. You will be surprised how able students are to do this if you are willing to follow verbally.

After completion of this segment of the workshop you should have mastered the following competencies:

1. Ability to define attending behavior.

2. Ability to count attending behavior in roleplaying and video-tapes.

3. Ability to demonstrate the skills of attending yourself in a demonstration tape.

4. Commitment and ability to use attending behaviors in settings beyond the workshop.

FOCUS HANDOUT

Segment 2

Focus was briefly dealt with in the segment on attending behavior. Focus can be defined as that act on the part of the teacher which insures that the student perceives interest and concern for his question, comment, observation or problem. The questions or encouragers used by the teacher center around the concerns of the student rather than the teacher. Questions should be designed to help the student clarify her/his problem or idea, rather than provide information for the teacher. (This is not to say that teachers are not to ask for information but rather that the student is given sufficient time and encouragement to answer as completely as is possible first.)

The component skills of focus (on the student) are:

1. Open-ended questions. These questions tend to give more room for student exploration. They generally begin with what, how and could. They tend to focus on the student, show interest and request more information and further depth. Open questions move the communication process in the direction which is indicated by the student. Open questions "open up" the student.

2. Closed questions. Closed questions often emphasize factual content as opposed to eliciting more of the students' feelings or ideas. Closed questions generally demonstrate a lack of interest in what the

student has to say. Closed questions can usually be answered in a few words or with a yes or no. Closed questions shut down the communication and cause the teacher the dilemma of "where do I go from here?"

Example:

Teacher "Are you angry at Mr. Hummer?"

Student "Yes."

Teacher "Why?"

Student "Because."

Teacher "Why, because?"

Student "I don't know!"

(Where does she go from here?)

The following open ended questions are likely to elicit more complete responses:

"What are some of the problems you're having with Mr. Hummer?"

"How are things on the hockey team?"

"Could you tell me a bit more about your fight with Alex Karras?" (if you can still talk)

Open-ended questions help begin a communication, particularly a student problem or concern. They help get the student to elaborate on his comment or answer in a discussion.

In your roleplaying practice sessions you will have the opportunity to practice both open and closed questions. The roleplaying experience will dramatically point out the differences and will probably

cause you to use closed questions only when specific information is urgently needed for you to continue to "focus" on the student's concern or idea. However, remember if you do get stuck and don't know what to say, mention something which was of interest earlier in the meeting or recapitulate. Of course, there is another alternative, pause and say nothing. (We'll discuss that briefly later.)

3. Minimal encouragers. Minimal encouragers, both verbal and non-verbal are used to help direct and focus the interaction and "keep students talking".

Verbal minimal encouragers are brief utterances which show you have tuned in with the student. Here are some useful examples:

1. "Oh?", "So?", "Then?", "And?", "Wow!"

2. The repetition of one or two key words.

Example:

Student "I think Dr. Labercane is a really neat guy."

Teacher "Neat guy!"

3. "Tell me more."

4. "Umm-humm", "uh-huh".

5. Simple statement of student's last words.

Non-verbal minimal encouragers are basic elaborations of the body language dimensions of attending behavior: basically good attending (discussed earlier) coupled with head nods, moving the body forward with a warm gesture at an appropriate moment is helpful. The rolling of the hands up along the body and out toward the student means "go

on, I'm interested and concerned".

Generally, verbal and non-verbal encouragers are used together. Practice their use in your dyads and micro-groups and you'll see that a minimal intervention is far more facilitative than a lot of verbiage.

The final point under focus is reduction of teacher talk time. Research has indicated that when we talk it is usually about our ideas, our comments or our solutions to problems. Studies show that the level of effective communications rises as teacher talk time decreases. Therefore, during this workshop "reduction of teacher talk time will be stressed". Remember the less you talk the more time the student has to clarify his ideas or solve his own problem. Try some "silence". (Anyway teachers need a break, who says they have to talk so much?)

After completion of this segment of the workshop you should have mastered the following competencies:

1. Ability to define the difference between open and closed questions.

2. Ability to count the different types of questions observed in a helping interview.

3. Ability to demonstrate the skills of question asking in an interview.

4. Ability to demonstrate the use of minimal encouragers in an interview.

5. Demonstrate reduction of talk time and use of "silence" as

minimal encouragers.

6. Ability and commitment to use the behaviors involved in focus in the field.

PARAPHRASING HANDOUT

Segment 3

Paraphrasing is crucial in attempting to bridge the interpersonal gap. (1) It increases the accuracy of communication, and thus the degree of mutual or shared understanding. (2) The act of paraphrasing itself conveys feeling ... your interest in the other, your concern to see how he views things.

Learning to Paraphrase

People sometimes think of paraphrasing as merely putting the other person's ideas in another way. They try to say the same thing with different words. Such word-swapping may result merely in the illusion of mutual understanding.

Effective paraphrasing is not a trick or a verbal gimmick. It comes from an attitude, a desire to know what the other means. And to satisfy this desire, you reveal the meaning his comment had for you so that the other can check whether it matches the meaning he intended to convey.

The Problem

Tell somebody your phone number and he will usually repeat it to make sure he heard it correctly. However, if you make a complicated statement, most people will express agreement or disagree-

ment without trying to insure that they are responding to what you intended. Most people seem to assume that what they understand from a statement is what the other intended.

How do you check to make sure that you understand another person's ideas, information or suggestions as he intended them? How do you know that his remark means the same to you as it does to him?

Of course, you can get the other person to clarify his remark by asking, "What do you mean?" or, "Tell me more." or by saying, "I don't understand.". However, after he has elaborated, you still face the same question. "Am I understanding his idea as he intended it to be understood?" Your feeling of certainty is no evidence that you do in fact understand.

The Skill

If you state in your own way what his remark conveys to you, the other can begin to determine whether his message is coming through as he intended. Then, if he thinks you misunderstand, he can speak directly to the specific misunderstanding you have revealed. The term "paraphrase" can be used for any means of showing the other person what his idea or suggestion means to you.

Paraphrasing, then, is any way of revealing your understanding of the other person's comment in order to test your understanding.

An additional benefit of paraphrasing is that it lets the other know that you are interested in him. It is evidence that you do want to understand what he means.

If you can satisfy the other that you really do understand his point, he will probably be more willing to attempt to understand your views.

Stage Learning - Paraphrasing

Stages:

In Roleplaying - Dyad

1. Repeat verbatim - what student said. (parrot)

2. Select main ideas and exact words from student's statement and repeat to student.

3. Select essence words (your own or student's) or ideas which most accurately describe what the student's ideas mean to you.

This process should provide you with practice which will aid in acquiring the skill of paraphrasing in a short period of time. Remember, this is a stage process for arriving at Stage 3, effective paraphrasing; Stages 1 and 2 are for initial practice only.

Effective paraphrasing lends clarity to the student's statement for the teacher and allows the student to review teacher feedback (the paraphrase) and clarify his ideas for himself as well as the teacher. If a student's statements or ideas remain his responsibility then decision-making and problem-solving are made easier.

Remember - paraphrasing is not a gimmick - it is an extremely effective method for insuring accurate listening and establishing care and concern for a student.

Skillful paraphrasing is a difficult task.

After completion of this final segment of the workshop you should have mastered the following competencies:

1. The ability to define the skill of paraphrasing.

2. The ability to count paraphrases.

3. The ability to demonstrate the skills of paraphrases in micro-group and VTR.

4. The ability and commitment to use paraphrasing in the classroom.

Research relating to this workshop has indicated that the skills learned will be retained over time only if they are used by the participants. If you have decided that the skills are relevant and valuable for you, it is important that you use them. After continual use in the field the skills will become part of your behavioral repertoire, that is, they will become natural behaviors.

As a professional communicator you may then want to teach these basic listening skills to your classroom students. Preliminary studies have shown that students enjoy the process and have little difficulty in acquiring the skills. If your students learned and practiced effective listening, the classroom communications system would improve and you might also expect improvement in:

1. student self-image,

2. classroom atmosphere,

3. student involvement and understanding of subject matter,

4. discussion groups and affective education programs.

If you are interested in implementing this program in your classroom, I will be happy to assist you.

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COMMUNICATIONS BEHAVIOR CHART

Student _____ Group _____

Tape # _____ Topic _____

Digit # _____ Date _____

							Total
1. Eye Movement							
2. Closed Questions							
3. Posture							
4. Gesticulation Non-verbal minimal encouragers							
5. Verbal following Verbal minimal encouragers							
6. Open Questions							
7. Paraphrasing							
8. Teacher Talk Time Estimate							

Comments:

During the VTR viewing, mark a tick in the appropriate box each time you observe an emitted behavior. You may want to concentrate on the non-verbal and then the verbal behaviors separately; don't try to do everything at once.

Appendix C

Trainers Handbook

for

Workshop

in Developing More Effective

Classroom Communication Skills

Ed Franzoni

University of Alberta

The purpose of this handbook is to provide trainers with general and specific information which will assist in insuring a successful workshop. It is strongly recommended that potential trainers attend this workshop before attempting to lead it. During the workshop questions often arise which require a firm foundation in communication theory and microtraining literature. Allen Ivey's book Microcounseling will provide workshop trainers with important background information, also a reading list of other relevant materials appears at the end of this handout.

The "do", "use", "teach" approach is stressed throughout the workshop. Participants are expected to demonstrate the skills in each segment (do). They are then expected to use the skills acquired in the field (use). Teaching the skills to others completes the cycle (teach). Ivey (1971) reports that a skill or behavior is not thoroughly understood until we can teach it to others. In this workshop it is hoped that the teacher participants will teach the skills to their classroom students.

This workshop is aimed at acquisition of basic communication skills by pre-service and inservice teachers. The classroom teacher is a professional communicator. It is important that throughout the workshop participants are assisted in discriminating between social and professional communication. Generally, social communication involves talking and listening which attempts to clarify or have accepted our point of view. Professional communication in the classroom involves the teacher clarifying ideas or observations of students and attempting to elicit more responses without introducing teacher needs or direction.

The focus is on the student and by using specific listening behaviors, the teacher can have a powerful effect upon the student feeling that his verbal contributions are important to the class, that the teacher understands them and is interested in his ideas.

Overview of Workshop

The introduction consists of a welcome and a brief lecture which delineates the purpose of the workshop. Trainees are then assigned to micro-groups and provided with discussion topics. They are instructed to conduct a 3 - minute videotaped discussion with roleplayed elementary students. This segment is then followed by a videotape lecture which outlines the Ivey format.

The lecture/modeling tape has been designed and developed for use in each of the segments of the workshop. Each of the component parts of attending, focus and paraphrasing are first discussed in a video lecture, then each of the components are demonstrated in a video modeling tape. The models are a teacher and a psychologist who were taped interacting with elementary school children who had volunteered for the modeling sequences.

The attending segment begins with a brief lecture followed by in-class reading of the attending handout by all subjects. The videotape lecture and modeling tape on effective attending is then presented. A brief discussion of the attending tape and behavior count charting is held before the workshop is once again divided into micro-groups. (Participants remain in the same micro-group throughout the workshop period).

Specific component parts of attending are then practiced in dyads in the micro-groups. Individual videotapes are then made by subjects demonstrating each of the specific component parts of attending. The individual tapes are recorded during a micro-group discussion in which subjects roleplay upper elementary school children. One member acts as teacher in demonstrating the component attending skills while conducting a simulated classroom discussion. The discussion topics are selected by the group and are chosen as to their appropriateness in the upper elementary milieu.

Each of the individual videotapes are then played and critiqued by the individual, trainer and the micro-group using the behavioral rating charts. Successful videotape demonstration is expected by each subject, those who experience difficulty in demonstrating the behaviors or who request additional work make a second or third tape until each of the attending behaviors are acquired. This procedure of demonstrating the required behaviors is followed for each of the listening skill areas.

The focus segment begins with a brief lecture, reading of the focus handout, videotape lecture and modeling demonstration tape. The micro-groups at this point are familiar with the concept of a micro-training situation and utilize time more efficiently. The program is highly structured, calling for a higher level of cooperation within the micro-group in order to meet time commitments and adequate levels of skill acquisition by each subject.

It should be noted that although the program is a structured

systematic approach to acquisition and demonstration of specific discrete skills, it also involves highly personal individual and group interaction with the trainer. The importance of relationship skills on the part of the trainer or supervisor is stressed throughout the microcounseling literature. "A friendly, warm and genuine attitude on the part of the individual supervising a microtraining session is essential. Most important, the supervisor in a microcounseling training session must model the skills he is teaching" (Ivey, et al., 1974, p. 7).

In previous workshops it was found that many of the trainees had not previously used VTR and had limited experience in group process and organization. Therefore, it is important that the trainer take an active role in allaying "camera anxiety" and facilitating a warm, unthreatening atmosphere in each of the groups. Basically, the format is structured and behavioral in approach, however, it has been found that the trainer's skill modeling, enthusiasm and rapport with subjects is a critical part of the workshop's effective functioning.

Dyad roleplaying in practicing the component parts of focus is followed by individual videotaping by each subject. These individual videotapes are then viewed by the trainer and the individual while the micro-group scores the behavioral rating chart during the viewing. At times the videotape may be stopped and replayed to point out a particularly effective or ineffective behavior which has been noted by the micro-group or individual whose tape is being viewed. However, it has been found that pointing out strengths in the individual VTR's is more effective

than pointing out skills which need improvement. Subjects will initiate discussion on personal skills needing work when the micro-group atmosphere is positive and nonthreatening.

As with all the basic listening skill segments, it is required that all subjects of each group successfully demonstrate on videotape each of the specific component behaviors of focus. Those who experience difficulty in skill demonstration or request additional taping time may make a second or third tape with the help of other group members. A brief discussion of the component skills of focus and the noting of particularly effective demonstration tapes ends the segment.

The fourth part of the workshop, and last of the specific listening behaviors, is paraphrasing. A brief introduction to paraphrasing, reading of the paraphrasing handout, viewing of the videotape lecture and modeling videotape is presented. Paraphrasing is then practiced in dyads. Upon the completion of the "stage learning" (Appendix A) procedure of paraphrasing, the group meets with the trainer. The trainer then roleplays an elementary school student and randomly calls upon subjects to paraphrase his statements. Individual videotapes are then made by each subject acting as teacher while group members roleplay upper elementary students participating in a group discussion. The individual videotapes are then replayed and discussed by the subject and the trainer with the group using the behavior rating charts. Paraphrasing is considered the highest level skill presented in the workshop. Some subjects may wish to make additional tapes in order to successfully

demonstrate effective paraphrasing.

The summary portion of the workshop begins with a brief review of the three basic listening skills; attending, focus and paraphrasing. Each subject then is videotaped conducting a small micro-group discussion with new topics provided by the trainer. After viewing and discussion of the last individual tape, the group views a final videotaped discussion with the professional and elementary student models. The videotape consists of the trainer modeling the listening skills involved in the workshop in eliciting candid reactions about actual classroom communications from the elementary students who had appeared in the modeling tapes prepared for the workshop. The workshop is concluded with a brief re-emphasis on the "do", "use", "teach" concept (Ivey, 1971). Participants are reminded now that they have learned the skills, it is important that they be used on a regular basis and it is recommended that they teach the basic listening skills to their students.

Workshop Design and Materials

Number of participants. This workshop was designed for use with groups of from 15 - 20 people. Groups larger than this generally require an additional trainer. Micro-groups usually consist of 5 - 7 trainees.

Equipment. One videotape recording (including play-back) unit is needed for each micro-group. It is recommended that where possible, a VTR with stop action, forward, rewind and fast forward be used. The cassette models (3/4") are not as easy to work with as the reel to reel type (1/2") machine. Also if possible, one back-up unit should be

available. Two 60-minute tapes are required for each VTR unit. A blackboard is needed for lecture and direction for each skill segment.

Each participant should have a copy of the workshop handbook. The handbook contains introductory material, schedule, micro-group roles and responsibilities, handouts for each skill segment and communication behavior charts for use in viewing individual VTRs. The lecture and demonstration videotape designed for this workshop and entitled "Microtraining - Basic listening skills for classroom teachers" is also needed.

The workshop lectures and demonstration tapes and brief discussions are presented in a room large enough to accommodate the entire group. Micro-groups meet in partitioned areas in that room or in separate rooms nearby where the practice in dyads and individual VTRs is conducted.

It is recommended that the workshop be presented in four sessions, ideally one session each week for four weeks. The one week delay between sessions allows participants time for processing the skills and experimenting with them in the field.

Workshop Preparation and Procedure

1. Arrange for equipment well in advance. Insure that VTRs have been pre-checked by A.V. technicians prior to pick up. Instruct VTR person in each micro-group to use the same VTR unit for each session. Although VTR units are of similar make and design, they may record and play differently. This can cause problems, particularly when viewing

tapes of a previous session. When possible, it is also advisable to have a complete VTR unit available in case of malfunction of a major VTR component. Extra audio and video connector cords, extension cords and microphones are also recommended.

2. Arrange for one person in each group to be trained in the set-up and operation of the VTR playback system used in the workshop. If this training is not possible prior to the first session, it is recommended that a person familiar with VTR provide the "VTR person" in each group with instruction.

3. Read the appropriate sections of the participants handbook prior to each session. Bring extra handbooks to each meeting.

4. Work closely with the "Director" in each group to insure that the schedule is followed. This is especially important during sessions one and two, generally by the end of the second session the micro-groups will be functioning smoothly.

5. Remember that this is a "doing" workshop, that is, it is most important for the trainees to practice the skills and demonstrate them in individual videotapes. Therefore, discussions should be brief and directions clear and concise. Individual questions and comments as well as clarification of the directions for a given segment can be dealt with as you visit each micro-group. Once you are satisfied that each of the micro-groups understand the VTR taping approach, leave them alone.

6. Arrive at least 30 minutes prior to the start of the workshop. Check the rooms and equipment necessary for each micro-group and

become familiar with the facilities in the building (ie. coffee, restrooms). Start the session exactly on the time agreed upon.

The workshop schedule which is provided should be used in conjunction with the participants handbook. Each of the steps parallel those which have been provided to the trainees.

The format might seem somewhat structured, however, there is a good deal of material to be presented and this approach has been successful in the past. Modifications which provide for more efficacious workshop functioning are welcomed.

When the workshop begins, it is you who will determine its direction and impact on the participants. It is therefore important that you feel comfortable with the rationale and procedures of what is now <u>your</u> workshop. The trainers handbook provides you with the information necessary for a successful workshop, however, the results will be greatly influenced by your ideas, energy and enthusiasm.

Format for each Skill Segment

1. Brief introduction. Read appropriate handout.
2. Videotape lecture.
3. Discussion.
4. Videotaped models of each specific skill.
5. Brief discussion.
6. Dyadic-roleplaying observation by trainer.
7. Individual VTR of specific skills.
8. Critique and discussion of each skill. Use of Communication Behavior Chart.
9. Re-cycle - if necessary.
10. Group discussion - behavioral rating charts.

TRAINER WORKSHOP SCHEDULE

Session One

Step	Title	Trainer	Materials	Time Required
1.	VTR Pickup.	Arrive early. Meet new trainees and assist in set-up of VTR.	VTR	30 minutes
2.	Welcome - Introduction of self.	Brief who you are and why you are here statement.	Notes	5 minutes
	- Class expectations.	Conduct discussion. Write expectations on blackboard.	Blackboard	5 minutes
	- Purpose of Workshop.	Briefly mention purpose, stress importance of sticking to schedule, having fun is important. (Do not discuss skills.)	Notes	5 minutes
	- Assignment to Micro-Groups	Count off according to number of trainees (5-7) in each group. Insure group selects leader.		5 minutes
	- Individual VTR Direction	Trainees to make 3-minute individual tape. Briefly describe roles. Handout. Topics. Direct micro-groups to assigned rooms.	Topics Handout Blackboard	10 minutes
3.	Introduction to VTR.	Circulate through micro-groups to answer questions on task (3-minute tape) and VTR.	VTR 1 tape for each micro-group	15 minutes
4.	VTR Individual Tape. (3-minute for each micro-group member)	Circulate through micro-groups. Be positive in comments. Answer questions. Check out camera angle and microphone placement. Once micro-group is functioning, don't interupt. (Save these tapes).	VTR 1 tape for each micro-group	35 minutes

Step	Title	Trainer	Materials	Time Required
5.	Introduction to Ivey's Microtraining Paradigm.	Pass out "handbooks". Class reads pgs. 1-5. Ask for questions. Play "Introduction" of lecture/modeling tape. (If lecture/modeling tape is set prior to each session - no class time will be lost - try to find the start of each segment.)	Handbooks Lecture/modeling tape (Introduction)	25 minutes
6.	Effective attending.	Class reads attending behavior handout, pgs. 13-16 in "Handbook". Brief lecture, questions.	Handbooks	15 minutes
7.	Effective attending.	Play "attending" lecture tape. Questions, discussion. Play "attending" modeling tape. Questions, discussion.	Lecture/modeling tape (Attending)	20 minutes
8.	Feedback and discussion.	Be positive. Discussion of events of the session - announce meeting time and place, plans and schedule for next meeting. Conclude by asking group to try skills in the field and report on use at session two.		10 minutes

TRAINER WORKSHOP SCHEDULE

Session Two

Step	Title	Trainer	Materials	Time Required
1.	Welcome.	Arrive early. (Check on VTRs). Welcome remarks. Check on use of attending skills. Trainees read pages 6-12. Questions, discussion brief. Be positive.	Extra Handbook	15 minutes
2.	Behavior Count Charting.	Trainees read page 25. Communications behavior chart. Explain purpose of chart and importance of its use during each VTR viewing. Use blackboard to illustrate.	Blackboard	15 minutes
3.	Discussion.	Review attending skills. Write skills on blackboard. Explain practice in dyads. During 3-minute tape, indicate that at least 3 instances of each skill must appear(ie. 3 verbal follows). Indicate that it's OK if demonstrations of behavior seems unnatural, urge group to try them anyway. Have fun acting on TV. Group breaks up into micro-groups for dyad roleplay.	Blackboard	15 minutes
4.	Dyad Roleplay.	Circulate through groups - visit each dyad - demonstrate attending skills to micro-group if necessary. Allot equal time to each group. Positive comments.	Chairs	30 minutes
5.	Videotaping Session.	Circulate through micro-group. Insure that schedule is followed - don't interupt taping. View and comment on 2 or 3 individual VTRs in each micro-group. Stress importance of Behavior Chart in feedback. Positive comments.	VTR Blackboard	45 minutes

Step	Title	Trainer	Materials	Time Required
6.	Focus.	Brief lecture - focus. Group reads pgs. 16-20 (Focus Handout) in Handbook. Brief question and answer period.	Handbook	15 minutes
7.	Focus Lecture/modeling tape.	Play "Focus" lecture tape. Brief discussion. Play modeling tape. Brief discussion. Explain and list on blackboard - component skills of focus and times spent on each skill for dyad and VTR. Groups break into micro-groups.	VTR Blackboard Workshop tape	25 minutes
8.	Dyad Roleplay (Focus).	Circulate through micro-groups - visit each dyad. Demonstrate skills - allot time equally between micro-groups.	Chairs	40 minutes
9.	Feedback and Evaluation.	Brief discussion of events of the session. Announce meeting time and place, plans and schedule for next meeting. Conclude by asking group to try skills of focusing in the field and report on use in session three.		

TRAINER WORKSHOP SCHEDULE

Session Three

Step	Title	Trainer	Materials	Time Required
1.	Welcome.	Arrive early. Check on VTRs - ask 2 or 3 people to report on use of skills. Briefly review Focus - Explain VTR session. Trainees to demonstrate 3 instances of each skill - put on blackboard. Break into micro-groups.	Extra Handbook	15 minutes
2.	Videotape Session - Focus	Visit each micro-group to answer questions. Micro-groups should be functioning smoothly. Relax - be available for trainees in a convenient place. After VTR work, view 2 or 3 individual VTRs in each group - positive comments on effective use of skills. Be sure to select VTRs of trainees not viewed in session one.	VTR tape	60 minutes
3.	Paraphrasing intro.	Have group read paraphrasing handout, pgs. 20-24 in Handbook. Brief discussion and answer period.	Handbook	15 minutes
4.	Paraphrasing - lecture/modeling tape.	Play "Paraphrasing" lecture tape. Brief discussion. Play "Paraphrasing" modeling tape. Brief discussion. Explain "stage" approach and dyad roleplaying. Move into micro-groups.	VTR Workshop tape	15 minutes
5.	Dyad Roleplaying -	Circulate through micro-groups. After each group has completed the 3 stages in paraphrasing, form a circle in each group. Make a 2 or 3 sentence statement and point to trainee who then paraphrases the statement. This exercise works and trainees enjoy it.	Chairs	35 minutes

Step Title	Trainer	Materials	Time Required
6. Feedback & Evaluation.	Brief review, feedback. Announce meeting time for session four. Stress importance of using skills in the field and indicate you would like reports in session four.		10 minutes

TRAINER WORKSHOP SCHEDULE

Session Four

Step	Title	Trainer	Materials	Time Required
1.	Welcome and Review.	Arrive early. Ask 2 or 3 people to report on use of skills. Briefly review paraphrasing. Use blackboard to indicate what is required of trainees in individual paraphrasing tapes. Break into micro-groups for taping.	Blackboard	15 minutes
2.	Videotaping Session - Paraphrasing.	Visit each group. View and comment on the tapes of individuals whom you have not worked with before - be positive. Point out effective use of paraphrase. Apportion time effectively.	VTR tape	45 minutes
3.	Discussion - Final videotape presentation.	Handout topics used in 1st tape. Discuss "final" taping, indicate to roleplaying students and teachers that this tape should be as "real life" as possible. Insure that the VTR person checks VTR functioning before and after each tape and that the individual tapes are coded and times for 3 minutes.	VTR tape	15 minutes
4.	Videotaping Session - Final Tape.	It is not necessary to visit micro-groups during taping of the final video - but be available.	VTR tape	45 minutes
5.	Final Discussing and Micro-group viewing.	Visit each micro-group. Apportion time - view and comment on tapes of 1 or 2 trainees in each group. Be positive. (Save these tapes).	VTR tape	45 minutes
6.	Conclusion.	Collect tapes. Play group discussion segment of workshop tape. Brief discussion. "Kids do recognize when a teacher listens!" Indicate to trainees that pre and posttest tapes are available	VTR Workshop tape (final segment)	15 minutes

Step Title	Trainer	Materials	Time Required
	for those who would like to view them. Briefly discuss follow-up program having trainees do similar tapes in 1 or 2 months time - record names of those interested. Close with personal feelings and comments on workshop and importance of using the skills and teaching them to their students.		

READING LIST

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Ivey, A. Microcounseling. Springfield, Ill.: Chas. C. Thomas Publishing, 1971.

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Appendix D

Table I

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for Eye Contact - differences between groups, entry level and interaction effect

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability
Groups	14.49	1	14.49	1.07	0.30178
Entry Level	42.43	1	42.43	3.14	0.08503
Interaction	14.49	1	14.19	1.07	0.30718
Errors	458.38	34	13.48		

Table II

Cell Sums and Means for Variable 1 - Eye Contact - for group membership and level of entry skill

(Groups) Level A	(Entry Level) Level B	Sum	Mean	N
Post 1	High 1	12.000	1.000	12
Delay 2	High 1	5.000	1.000	5
Post 1	Low 2	77.000	4.813	16
Delay 2	Low 2	10.000	2.000	5

Table III

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for Closed Questions - differences between groups, entry level and interaction effect

Source	Sum of Square	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability
Groups	2.52	1	2.52	0.25	0.62023
Entry Level	0.27	1	0.27	0.02	0.86983
Interaction	2.33	1	2.33	0.23	0.63354
Errors	343.12	34	10.09		

Table IV

Cell Sums and Means for Variable 2 - Closed Questions - for group membership and level of entry skill

(Groups) Level A	(Entry Level) Level B	Sum	Mean	N
Post 1	High 1	58.000	4.833	12
Delay 2	High 1	34.000	4.857	7
Post 1	Low 2	71.000	4.438	16
Delay 2	Low 2	17.000	5.667	3

Table V

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for Posture - differences between groups, entry level and interaction effect

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability
Groups	6.37	1	6.37	1.82	0.18576
Entry Level	2.07	1	2.07	0.59	0.44653
Interaction	5.55	1	5.55	1.59	0.21580
Errors	118.83	34	3.49		

Table VI

Cell Sums and Means for Variable 3 - Posture for group membership and level of entry skill

(Groups) Level A	(Entry Level) Level B	Sum	Mean	N
Post 1	Low 1	71.000	5.462	13
Delay 2	Low 1	27.000	5.400	5
Post 1	High 2	87.000	5.800	15
Delay 2	High 2	20.000	4.000	5

Table VII

"t" Test - differences between means of independent samples

	Means		Std. Deviation				Probabilities	
Var.	Grp.1&2	3	Grp.1&2	3	DF	T	1-Tail	2-Tail
Pre-test	0.1429	0.1000	0.3563	0.3162	36.0	0.3355	0.36960	0.73921
Posttest	1.7500	0.7000	1.9365	0.9487	36.0	1.6354	0.05534	0.11069

Table VIII

F-Test - Homogeneity of Variance

Variable	Grp.1&2	3	DF1	DF2	F Ratio	Probability
Pre-test 1	0.127	0.100	27	9	1.26984	0.74011
Posttest 2	3.750	0.900	27	9	4.16667	0.03012

Table IX

Welch "t" Test - adjusted for unequal variance for differences between pre and posttest scores

Variable	Adj. DF	T-Ratio	Prob. (2 Tail)
Pre-test 1	19.56	0.3555	0.72604
Posttest 2	35.01	2.2189	0.03307

Table X

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for Verbal Following and Minimal Verbal Enccuragers - differences between groups, entry level and interaction effect

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability
Groups	10.43	1	10.43	1.75	0.19433
Entry Level	1.58	1	1.58	0.26	0.60970
Interaction	8.85	1	8.85	1.48	0.23098
Errors	202.44	34	5.95		

Table XI

Cell Sums and Means for Variable 5 - Verbal Following and Minimal Verbal Enccuragers - for group membership and level of entry skill

(Groups) Level A	(Entry Level) Level B	Sum	Mean	N
Post 1	Low 1	48.000	3.429	14
Delay 2	Low 1	20.000	3.333	6
Post 1	High 2	57.000	4.071	14
Delay 2	High 2	7.000	1.750	4

Table XII

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for Open-ended Questions - differences between groups, entry level and interaction effect

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability
Groups	7.62	1	7.62	2.47	0.12518
Entry Level	0.60	1	0.60	0.19	0.66027
Interaction	4.81	1	4.81	1.56	0.21996
Errors	104.91	34	3.08		

Table XIII

Cell Sums and Means for Variable 6 - Open-ended Questions - for group membership and level of entry skill

(Groups) Level A	(Entry Level) Level B	Sum	Mean	N
Post 1	Low 1	36.000	1.800	20
Delay 2	Low 1	11.000	1.571	7
Post 1	High 2	24.000	3.000	8
Delay 2	High 2	3.000	1.000	3

Table XIV

Analysis of Variance Summary Table - Paraphrasing - differences between groups, entry level and interaction effect

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability
Groups	8.10	1	8.10	2.21	0.14600
Entry Level	3.15	1	3.15	0.86	0.35960
Interaction	0.009	1	0.009	0.002	0.96047
Errors	124.48	34	3.66		

Table XV

Cell Sums and Means for Variable 7 - Paraphrasing - for group membership and level of entry skill

(Groups) Level A	(Entry Level) Level B	Sum	Mean	N
Post 1	Low 1	79.000	3.591	22
Delay 2	Low 1	10.000	2.500	4
Post 1	High 2	26.000	4.333	6
Delay 2	High 2	19.000	3.167	6

Table XVI

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for Teacher Talk Time - differences between groups, entry level and interaction effect

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Probability
Groups	187.53	1	187.53	0.22	0.63699
Entry Level	1505.87	1	1505.87	1.82	0.18615
Interaction	260.46	1	260.46	0.31	0.57836
Errors	28121.00	34	827.08		

Table XVII

Cell Sums and Means for Variable 8 - Teacher Talk Time - for group membership and level of entry skill

(Groups) Level A	(Entry Level) Level B	Sum	Mean	N
Post 1	Low 1	607.000	50.583	12
Delay 2	Low 1	309.000	51.500	6
Post 1	High 2	1139.000	71.188	16
Delay 2	High 2	240.000	60.000	4

Appendix E

Behavioral Rating Chart for Individual Videotapes

Tape # _____
Segment # _____
Topic _____ Rater: _____

		TOTAL
Negative acts 1. eye movement _____		
2. closed questions _____		
Total _____		
Positive acts 1. posture _____		
2. gesticulation non-verbal minimal encouragers		
3. verbal following verbal minimal encouragers _____		
4. open-ended questions _____		
5. paraphrasing _____		
Total _____		
Teacher Talk Time (in seconds) _____		

Appendix F

Discussion Topics for Pre and Posttest VTR's

Strikes - good or bad?

Should Canada Feed the World?

Olympics - Should they Continue?

Voting - Should People Vote?

Bilingualism

Immigration - Should Canada Allow Everyone to Come?

Hunting - Should it be Banned?

Space Development or Food - Which is Most Important?

Can Wars be Eliminated?

Oil Exploration or Untouched Bush - Which is more Important?

T.V. - What is Good about It?

Should Canada Support the U.S. in International Politics?

Should Females be Encouraged into Male Dominated Occupations? (plumbers, politics, mechanics)

Should Males be Encouraged into Female Dominated Occupations? (secretary, nurse)

Subjects provided with these topics for use in pre and posttest videotaping. These topics were not used by subjects in the demonstration sessions of the workshop (treatment).